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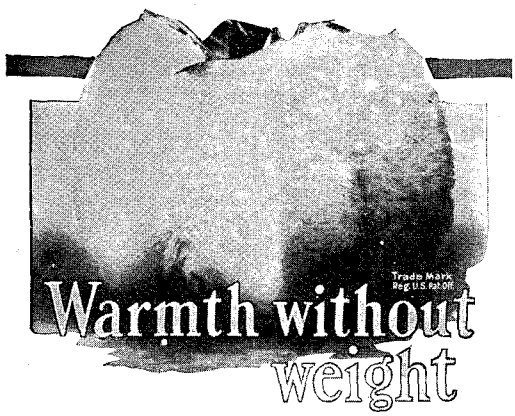

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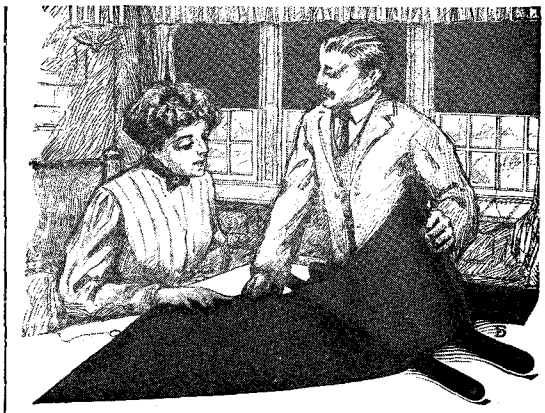

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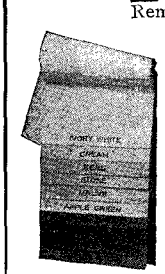

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The Outlook

OCTOBER 9, 1909

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THE HUDSON-FULTON CELEBRATION

The Hudson-Fulton Commission has performed its colossal task with extraordinary thoroughness and ability and laid the city and the State of New York under lasting obligation for a public service of an extremely arduous and unselfish character; and it should be added that the people, both residents and visitors in the metropolis, have added their full share to the success of the various special celebrations. The order of the city has been conspicuous during more than a week of festivities. The management of the crowds by the police has been firm, and, almost without exception, courteous. Now and then an individual policeman has been unnecessarily rough, and in a few cases it is very much to be hoped that vigorous protest has been made at headquarters; but no crowd of the magnitude of that which filled the streets of New York could have been more successfully managed. The Historical Parade on Tuesday moved for five miles between solid ranks of people. There were probably a million men, women, and children in the streets of New York on that beautiful day. The crowd was more impressive than the spectacle, which, like almost all spectacles of the kind, demanded a very generous use of the imagination. The beginning of the procession, composed largely of Irish societies and almost buried in green flags, gave our fellow-citizens of Irish descent, perhaps, a little more prominence than they now numerically deserve, and Tammany was too much in evidence at the head of the line to gratify the pride of the fusionists in the present municipal campaign. But it must be remembered that far more Irish than Dutch have discovered America. The Italians, Poles, Swedes, Norwegians, Syrians, and other races by their presence and their generous use of the American flag gave the occasion its greatest significance. It was a very inspiring and noble spectacle to those Americans who interpret America in the largest terms of human opportunity and brotherhood; and New Yorkers who are glad to remember the cosmopolitan character of the city at the start could not fail to rejoice in the impressive evidence that the city of today has followed so closely the great example of hospitality set by their fathers. The historical floats were genially accepted by a good-natured crowd. In the long line there were two or three which might be called artistically effective; the majority left much to be desired; and this aspect of the celebration could hardly be regarded with satisfaction. The people on the floats did not take themselves with any degree of seriousness, and the crowd met them in their own mood. As a diversion, the floats were eminently successful. No one who saw Fifth Avenue on that memorable day, however, will ever forget the majesty of that vast crowd—courteous, quiet, cheerful, and without the slightest tendency to disorder beyond an occasional forward impulse of the line into Fifth Avenue from some of the cross streets. Democracy was certainly justified of her children! The official dinner of the Commission to its guests at the Astor Hotel on Wednesday night was one of the largest ever given in New York. The new dining-room of the Astor had been specially decorated for the occasion in Delft blue and in the Dutch manner, and was strikingly brilliant and effective as a setting of the dinner. The dinner was a mass-meeting in its magnitude, and was handled with great skill. It was impressive by reason of the presence of a large number of foreign guests of distinction. Governor Hughes presided. The speech of the Vice-President f the United States made the absence of the President a matter of

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keen regret; it was characterized by exaggeration of language and an exploitation of things American, and was singularly out of key in the presence of the representatives of the great countries. Prince Kuni, the English, German, French, and Italian admirals, the Minister of the Netherlands, a representative of Mexico, Mayor McClellan, and Senator Root were the other speakers. The visitors received an enthusiastic welcome, and the speeches struck the note of human brotherhood in a way to gladden the hearts of the vast group of influential men present.

THE MILITARY PARADE

Saturday, Tuesday, and Thursday, the critical days of the celebration, were ideal in point of weather—golden autumn days, soft and warm and brilliant. The men who took part in the Military Parade on Thursday could hardly have remembered a more beautiful and striking scene than the march down Fifth Avenue, a street singularly adapted for public display. When the head of the line had reached Washington Square, the whole length of the street to the entrance of the Park was a line of moving men, flowing like a river between unbroken ranks of men, women, and children crowded down to the curb, faces from every window, people sitting on every available point on roofs of houses and stores. The procession was very largely made up of marines and sailors; and New York has never before seen such an assemblage of men of the sea as passed before its eyes that afternoon. The marching, as a rule, was excellent. The foreign sailors were greeted with five miles of acclamation, and the men of the different American ships moved through a continuous tumult of applause. The orderliness of the vast throng was again the most impressive feature of the occasion. The crowds gathered without noise and dispersed without tumult. There was practically no disorder at any point of the city; and while conveyances of all kinds by land and water were crowded, the courtesy and good nature reduced friction to a minimum. The most admirable work connected with the festivities has been that which was largely out of sight: the preservation of order, provision against accident and sudden illness, provision for the comfort and information of strangers. Ambulances and physicians seemed to be everywhere within reach, drinking water was furnished at many of the street corners. Serious accidents, fortunately, were very rare; but every emergency was met with promptness and skill. The New York County subdivision of the American National Red Cross did efficient service at a series of seventeen emergency hospitals along the line of the parades, seven of them in army tents loaned by General Wood. Several hundred cases were treated on Tuesday and Thursday. The volunteer work of the doctors and nurses was a notable object-lesson as to the value, on such occasions, of the Red Cross organization.

ON THE HUDSON

It was eminently fitting that the Hudson River itself should be the scene of a large part of the most impressive pageantry of the festival. The opening Naval Parade had the semi-paradoxical feature of being in large part made up of sightseers, for those who crowded the steamboats, yachts, lighters, and even tugs were as truly sightseers as the many thousands who lined the slopes of the beautiful natural amphitheaters on Riverside Park and the Palisades. Broad and straight as it is, the Hudson, or North River, as New York City calls its part of the stream, was crowded with hundreds of craft. A clear, breezy day made river conditions perfect, and although there was one collision which brought death and serious injury, and numerous minor accidents, there was a feeling of relief that no tragedies on a large scale took place. General Clarkson, Surveyor of the Port, issued a sensible statement calling attention to the defects of the present law of inspection and the divided responsibility between the United States Department of Commerce and Labor and the Surveyor. That there should be created some permanent system of inspection with a really sufficient force at a port and district where 5,000 vessels are constantly in motion is a truism. Mr. Clarkson rightly pointed out that the way to preserve life is to anticipate disaster, and expressed the

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opinion that many excursion boats are now licensed to carry passengers far beyond their proper capacity. Let us hope that another calamity like that of the General Slocum will not be needed to compel action on Mr. Clarkson's warning. But to return to the river festivities: Of course the center of attraction was the almost tiny Half-Moon, manned by its Dutch gentleman-sailors, and the awkward-looking Clermont, modeled from Fulton's first steamboat. As these memorials of the past anchored off the finely designed Water Gate, and as they were saluted by the four-mile-long line of war-ships of many nations, and were followed by a vast stream of merchant and pleasure vessels, the climax of the historical celebration seemed to be reached. The river illumination that evening and on the following, like the wonderful electrical illuminations of the streets, towers, and bridges of the city, was a splendid illustration of the possibilities of electricity for night display. Another remarkable feature of the water festivities was the flying of the air-ships of Mr. Wilbur Wright and Mr. Glen Curtiss. Comparatively few people were fortunate enough to catch the uncertain moment of flight, but to those so favored the spectacle was one never to be forgotten.

CELEBRATION AND PRESERVATION

For the most part the Hudson-Fulton Celebration in New York has been a passing spectacle or a vanishing sound. Little will be left permanently to record this glorification of the explorer and the inventor. Some permanent objects, however, will serve as reminders of the occasion. Wednesday of last week was set apart as the day for the dedication of public parks, playgrounds, and memorials. In various communities along the Hudson River dedicatory exercises were held. In Newburgh and New York statutes and tablets were dedicated, and at Cornwall a public playground was opened. It was on Monday, however, that the dedicatory exercises of the greatest importance were held. On that day, besides the unveiling of the Henry Hudson monument on Spuyten Duyvil Hill, just north of New York City, there occurred the dedication of the great Palisade Inter-State Park. For thirteen miles on the western bank of the Hudson there extends a public reservation lying partly in the State of New Jersey and partly in the State of New York. This is the result of an undertaking that began nearly fifteen years ago. The readers of The Outlook have already been told of the progress of this undertaking and its success. It involved action by the State Legislatures of New Jersey and New York, the enthusiastic and sustained labors of many men and women, and the generosity of a number of people of wealth. By the timeliness of their gifts, Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan and Mr. and Mrs. H. McK. Twombly, and, by his faithful attention to executive problems, Mr. G. W. Perkins, have specially earned the recognition of the mention of their names. In fact, however, there are many people whose service in the matter has been essential. For about half a million dollars, less than one-eighth of the cost of a single modern battle-ship, this tract of wild country, including those monumental cliffs known as the Palisades, has been secured, not only as a recreation ground for the people, but as a guarantee against the spoliation and disfigurement of that part of the Hudson. Mr. Perkins, President of the New York Palisades Park Commission, is authority for the statement that approximately three thousand campers have enjoyed the Palisades this past season. The preservation of this picturesque region just across the river from New York City involved the purchase of twenty-one homesteads and the payment of money for the prevention of quarrying. Every one who has participated in the arduous and at times unpromising work that was necessary for the creation of this park, or who contributed to it money or land or valuable rights, has reason to feel gratification, not only that another park has been created, but more especially that a greater movement than the making of a single park, however large, has received a decided impetus from his efforts. The preservation of the Hudson River as a great National resource will, we believe, be the outcome of this undertaking. As Governor Hughes indicated in his speech at the dedication, the Hudson-

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Fulton Celebration will quicken popular appreciation of the Hudson River not only as a mighty navigable stream, but also as a spectacle of natural beauty. He urged the necessity of freeing the river from pollution, but he even more emphatically urged the necessity of preserving the scenery of the Hudson. "The entire watershed which lies to the north," he said, "should be conserved, and a policy should be instituted for such joint control as would secure adequate protection." We should add to this that the State itself should not be an offender, as it is likely to be if it builds, as is planned, a State Prison in a conspicuously beautiful spot on the bank of the river in the midst of the Highlands. As our readers know, there has already been created by the Legislature of New York a State forest reservation in the Highlands on the west bank of the river. Further action, however, is necessary. The plan for the establishment of a park extending along both banks, which fell through only at the end of the last session of the Legislature, should be revived.

THE PRESIDENT ON CONSERVATION

President Taft, in his speech at Spokane, Washington, September 28, defined with great clearness the policy of the present Administration respecting the conservation of National resources, which he considered under four heads: the preservation of the National forests; the reclamation of arid lands by irrigation; the disposition of water power sites; the disposition of coal, oil, and phosphate lands. One hundred and sixty-seven million acres of forest land belonging to the United States is under the direct control of the Forestry Bureau, and the work of that Bureau, of which Mr. Pinchot is the Chief, the President heartily commends, and urges its continuance. "The forest lands of the United States ought to be surveyed and carefully preserved, and its jurisdiction in respect to them clearly defined." The States should co-operate in this work because "the regulation of forests in private ownership within State boundaries is not *plainly* within the scope of Federal jurisdiction," though apparently the President thinks it *may* have jurisdiction to regulate forests and reforest denuded territory in the States "with the purpose of equalizing the flow of water in navigable streams, and to promote navigation during the entire year." He urges that all such forest lands "should be surveyed and held by the Government under the regulation of the Forestry Bureau, permitting a sale of such timber as shall be necessary in the proper forest preservation." The reclamation of arid lands he desires to see pushed forward with even greater celerity and efficiency. He thinks that more projects have been undertaken than the money derived from the sale of public lands has warranted, and he purposes to urge Congress to pass an enabling act which will permit the Secretary of the Interior to issue bonds in the sum of ten millions or more to complete all the projects, the bonds to be redeemed from the money paid into the reclamation fund after the completion of the projects. He explains that the withdrawals of public land for the purpose of preserving water power sites are temporary only, in order to permit Congress to enact the legislation for their permanent preservation. He believes that they can be sold to purchasers under such restrictions as will ultimately bring to the public coffers a revenue from an entirely proper source, and will secure the development of a great manufacturing power. In dealing with mineral lands having agricultural value he would separate the surface of the land from its mineral contents, and then either lease the right to take minerals from the lands at a specified compensation per ton, or sell them outright for an adequate price to the purchaser. We have no doubt that the first policy should be pursued respecting both the water sites and mineral lands; for the object of the Government should be not merely to secure a profit from these sites and these minerals, but also the right to exercise a Government control over them. Such Government control is as directly necessary to the National welfare as is the Government control which, under difficulty, we are now endeavoring to acquire over the National highways. It is worthy of notice that the President asserts that Secretary Ballinger, of the Interior Department, is in entire accord with him as to the necessity of

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promoting in every legitimate way the conservation of these four great resources; the forests, the arid lands, the water power sites, and the minerals. So far as we can judge from Mr. Taft's speech, the only difference on this subject between the present and the preceding Administration is that the preceding Administration believed that the Executive had larger powers under existing laws than the present Administration is inclined to think the Executive possesses.

TAMMANY IN ARRAY

Tammany Hall, the self-perpetuating political oligarchy which has long been in control of the government of New York City, has named as its candidate for Mayor Judge William J. Gaynor. Of course Tammany acts as one part of the Democratic organization in the city. In its action it has as allies the Democratic machines in the rest of the city, particularly the Brooklyn organization that is bossed by Patrick McCarren. Although these various groups within the Democratic organization are bitter rivals for power, they hold to the same corrupting political ideals. Murphy, the Tammany boss, may struggle with McCarren, the Brooklyn boss; but they are stanch allies when it comes to a fight in defense of the boss system. Judge Gaynor, the nominee, has been a public figure in New York for a number of years. He first became conspicuous as a leader in the contest against John Y. McKane, of bad memory, and was instrumental in sending McKane to prison, where he belonged. For fifteen years he has been on the bench, latterly as a judge of the State Supreme Court. His temperament and course of action have not, however, been judicial. He has been an advocate of what he has asserted to be popular rights and personal liberty. However sincere he may have been, his judgment has been constantly at fault—so greatly at fault, indeed, as to lead him to be a hindrance to good government. His influence has increased the difficult task of suppressing vice through the enforcement of the excise laws, and has interfered with the discipline and efficiency of the police. He has acted frequently without apparently giving any thought to the inevitable and obvious consequences of his action. The most recent instance of this was his interference in the so-called Duffy case, which brought about the dismissal of that most efficient Police Commissioner, General Bingham, and the consequent reversion of the Police Department to its former use as a dangerous instrument of political vengeance. It is not pleasant to contemplate what may happen to New York City with a man of such ill-balanced judgment in the Mayor's chair. Judge Gaynor's associates on the city ticket are Robert R. Moore, President of the Commercial Trust Company, who is candidate for Comptroller, and John F. Galvin, head of a manufacturing concern, for President of the Board of Aldermen. Neither of them is known to the public at large. In the meantime the Republicans, after conference with the Fusion forces, have made excellent nominations for county and borough officers. For District Attorney, ex-Judge Whitman was nominated, a man of high character, proved courage, legal ability, and of popularity with the voters. For Borough President of Manhattan the Republicans have named an independent Democrat, George McAneny, President of the City Club, whose knowledge of municipal problems is that of an expert, whose ability as an executive has been tested, and whose competence to perform the duties of the important office for which he is named is undisputed. The ticket headed by Mr. Bannard is thus a genuine Fusion ticket. The Tammany platform begins with a denunciation of the Republican National Administration (with which this municipal campaign has nothing to do), upholds the municipal construction and ownership of subways, makes a bid for the police vote by favoring the three platoon system, and, while indorsing retrenchment, deprecates a parsimonious government. The real issue, however, between Tammany and Fusion is not a dispute between platforms, it is the time-worn but always fresh issue between those who would govern for their own interest, with incidental benefit to the public, and those who would govern with sole regard to public good. No more important municipal election has ever taken place in New York than that which will occur on November 2; and yet

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the interest of the voters has not yet become evident. It should be aroused, so that those who care chiefly for the public good will take the same pains to register as will those who see in the election some possible personal gain.

ENGLISH POLITICS

The Outlook has already given an account of the extraordinary character of the political campaign now going on in England: the direct appeal to the people in a series of speeches by the leaders of both parties, very much as Mr. Taft and Mr. Bryan presented the claims of the two parties before the voters in the election in this country a year ago. Lord Rosebery, a charming speaker, always listened to with the greatest interest but rarely followed by any considerable number of people, has declared that the new Liberalism, as interpreted by the Budget, is revolutionary Socialism. The Prime Minister, replying at length in a persuasive rather than in a defiant mood, although there was no uncertainty either in his positions or in his spirit, made a plain, frank, untechnical defense of the Budget, meeting the objections taken to the land section and justifying the new taxes imposed as made necessary by the introduction of social reforms and the maintenance of the free-trade system. He declared that the Cabinet and the Liberal party were a unit in the position that the revenue necessary for carrying on the Government must be secured by a fair distribution of the burdens of taxation in proportion to the capacity for bearing them; and he very strongly affirmed the principle that in financial legislation the House of Commons has the controlling voice. There was no denunciation of the House of Lords, nor did the Premier indulge in any threats against that body in case the Budget should be rejected or greatly modified. The plain intimation of the address was that, in case the Upper House violated what the Premier regarded as the historical precedents of the last half-century and attempted seriously to modify financial legislation originating in the House of Commons, an appeal would be made to the country on the constitutional question. Mr. Balfour, the leader of the Conservatives, made the next notable address at Birmingham, in the heart of Mr. Chamberlain's constituency. He emphasized what he regards as the tendency of the Budget toward slipshod communism, and affirmed that the real issue before the people was whether it should follow the line of tariff reform or inaugurate Socialistic legislation, the ultimate outcome of which no man could foresee. The days of British industrial supremacy, he declared, were over. In many important industrial fields, he said, Great Britain holds a second place, and money can now be invested in America and Germany as easily as in Great Britain; and the Budget, if adopted, would result in the withdrawal of capital from Great Britain, and thus strike at the very heart of British prosperity. America and Germany were building up great commercial prosperity; while the British, clinging to the free-trade formula, were rapidly losing influence and power. Lines were now being drawn sharply between the tariff reformers and the Socialists. The attempt of Mr. Balfour to put tariff reform to the front in the campaign may not be successful; but his boldness awoke the enthusiasm of his audience, and a letter from Mr. Chamberlain expressing the hope that the House of Lords would see the way to force a general election was received with ringing cheers. It seems to be the general impression that such an election will be held not later than January, and the Liberals are apparently confident of the outcome.

THE SITUATION IN RUSSIA

Recent events in Russia seem to indicate that the Czar and his reactionary counselors have wholly recovered from the panic into which they were temporarily thrown by the great uprising of the people in 1905–6, and that they now feel quite safe in returning to the autocratic methods of government which were nominally abandoned when the Czar issued his "freedom manifesto" on the 30th of October, 1905. Russia still has a Duma; she is still supposed to have a constitution; and her Czar is still regarded as a "limited" monarch; but it becomes more and more apparent every day that, so far as the rights and freedom of the people are concerned, the Russia of 1909 differs

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little, if at all, from the Russia of 1903. Four-fifths of the Empire, including nearly all the cities, are under martial law, and governors-general, governors, and prefects are resorting to administrative arrest, imprisonment, exile, and suppression, almost as freely as they did six or eight years ago under such Ministers of the Interior as Sipiagin and Pleve. A brief reference to a few of the things that have happened this year—and for the most part within the last three months—will show how little the Czar's officials are restrained by Duma, constitution, or Imperial manifesto, and how far the power of the people in Russia falls short of the power of the people in Bulgaria, or Servia, or even in such recently reformed countries as Turkey and Persia. Between January 1, 1906, when the Government began to resort to repressive measures on an extensive scale, and January 1, 1909, the number of prisoners in the Russian fortresses and jails increased from about 95,000 to 178,665—a total never before approached in the history of the Empire. The terrible overcrowding of the prison buildings, which were intended to hold only about 100,000 persons even when crammed full, caused, of course, an immense amount of suffering and sickness. At the end of March, 1909, there were 3,000 cases of typhus fever among prisoners and 250 among prison officials, and the disease was officially reported as epidemic in twenty-two prisons. The number of cases of suicide in prison increased in a single year from nine to one hundred and eighteen. In the first seven months of 1909 military courts sentenced 841 persons to death in Russia, and up to the 1st of August 381 of the persons so sentenced had been hanged or shot. Nearly all were civil or political offenders, who, in a constitutional country, would have been tried with proper legal forms and guarantees in the regular civil tribunals. In these same seven months the publishers of 109 periodicals in Russia were fined in the aggregate sum of 54,425 rubles for publishing news or expressing opinions obnoxious to the Government, and in addition to these pecuniary punishments whole editions of papers and magazines were seized and destroyed, printing offices were closed, editors were arrested and employees were exiled—all by administrative process. In the month of June, 1909, three newspapers were suppressed altogether, and in August, 1909, the St. Petersburg journal Reitch (Speech), the organ of the Constitutional Democrats, was fined 500 rubles for printing a signed article entitled "Suicide in the Army," which was based wholly on reports of the Ministry of War.

THE PERSECUTION OF CITIZENS

On the 28th of May, 1909, Mr. Selden, a St. Petersburg publisher, was sentenced to six months' imprisonment in a fortress for publishing one of Count Tolstoy's books, and on the 17th of August, 1909, the Count's private secretary, Mr. N. N. Gusef, was exiled by administrative process to the province of Perm for distributing the venerable author's brochure entitled "Thou Shalt Do No Murder." In July, 1909, Mr. W. Bogoras, author of volume eleven of the Memoirs of the American Museum of Natural History (one of the volumes containing the scientific results of the Jessup North Pacific Expedition), was sentenced to two months' imprisonment for describing the beating of citizens of Tver by dragoons in 1905, a thing that he had personally witnessed. In August, 1909, Mr. Mizeref, who for thirty years had been the official surgeon of the District Assembly (zemstvo) in Krasnoufimsk, was exiled by administrative process for giving to Representative Sitof, of that Assembly, a surgeon's certificate stating that Mr. Sitof's body bore evidence of having been beaten with whips by the police during a political street demonstration in 1907. In July, 1909, one member of the Second Duma was sentenced to death and another to penal servitude by a military court in Kursk; and in August, 1909, eleven members of the political campaign committee of the Social Democratic party in the Caucasus were sentenced to four years of penal servitude by a military court in Tiflis. On the 20th of August, 1909, the director of an orchestra in Chenstohova (a Polish town familiar to all readers of Sienkiewicz's "Deluge"), was administratively fined one hundred rubles for allowing his orchestra to play the Polish hymn "God Save

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Poland." On the 22d of August, 1909, twenty-three women school-teachers who had been making a vacation excursion to Germany, and who had stopped in Moscow to see the city on their way home, were all arrested as suspicious characters by the police, while they were drinking tea in a private house to which they had been invited, and were imprisoned in one of the city jails over night. In June, 1909, just as an authorized teachers' institute in the town of Ufa was about to hold its first session, it was suppressed by order of the Minister of the Interior, and three hundred teachers from all parts of the province, who had assembled with the expectation of getting a course of normal instruction, had to return disappointed to their homes. In August, 1909, the "Authors' and Scientists' Mutual Benefit Society," a benevolent organization which had been in existence for eighteen years, which had eight hundred members, and which included most of the writers and scholars of Russia, was suppressed by order of Premier Stolypin, for the ostensible reason that it had given pecuniary aid to an indigent author named Vitashefski—a man of advanced age who had once, twenty years earlier, been sent to Siberia for political crime. It is believed, however, that the real reason for the suppression of the Society is the fact that most of its members are liberals. The existing Government is extremely intolerant toward social organizations that take an independent or critical attitude toward the reactionary policy now in force. On the 21st of July, 1909, the severest form of martial law, the so-called "law of extraordinary defense," was proclaimed in St. Petersburg for the seventh consecutive time. The city has been under some form of martial law ever since the assassination of Alexander II in 1881. Almost the only encouraging feature of the present situation in Russia is the fact that the members of the Duma are still allowed to talk, and the newspapers are still permitted to publish verbatim reports of the debates. The lower house of the so-called Parliament has no independent power, and no real control even over the finances of the Empire; but it can criticise, interpellate the Czar's Ministers, and promote to some extent the political education of the people. Three years ago Premier Stolypin defined his policy as "progressive reform, with the restoration of order." He has partly restored order, by hanging, imprisoning, or exiling to Siberia a large part of the disorderly population; but his reforms have "progressed" as the land-crab is popularly supposed to walk—backward. Whether he is wholly to blame for the reactionary policy that he is enforcing, or whether he acts more or less under compulsion, we shall not know, perhaps, until he retires from office and follows the example of General Kuropatkin and General Linevitch by writing his memoirs.

SECRETARY BALLINGER, TRUSTEE

The people of the United States own in Alaska five thousand acres of coal lands which are estimated to contain one hundred and twenty-six millions of dollars' worth of coal of excellent quality. Certain individuals have presented a claim to these coal lands based on entries made under the Homestead Law. Prior to his taking his present office the Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Ballinger, acted temporarily as legal adviser of certain of these claimants and advised them—we quote from the President's published letter to Mr. Ballinger—"that there was no probability of securing a patent of the claims without presenting them under recent remedial legislation imposing conditions which the claimants were either unwilling or unable to meet." We may assume, therefore, that at present the legal title to these lands rests, in the opinion of Secretary Ballinger, in the people of the United States; that the lands are theirs, and the Cunningham claims, in the form in which they are now presented, are not legal. What is the duty of the Secretary to the people of the United States in view of these facts? What he seems to have thought was his duty is thus stated by the President:

> The record overwhelmingly establishes that, expressly because of your previous relation as counsel to one of the claimants, from the time you entered upon the duties of the office of Secretary of the Interior until the present day you have studiously declined to have any connection with the Cunningham claims or to exercise any control

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over the course of the Department in respect to these claims, that you have said so in written and verbal communications to your subordinates and to the claimants themselves. Moreover, in May last you came to me and made a similar statement to me of your course and intention in respect to these claims.

Is this what the people of the United States have a right to expect of Secretary Ballinger? Frankly, we do not think that it is what they have a right to expect. It furnishes very satisfactory evidence against the charge that he is using the present power of his office to aid his former clients. But this is not all that the people of the United States have a right to ask of him. They have a right to ask that he use the official power with which they have intrusted him to protect their rights against claimants whose claims he has already declared, while their counsel, to be without adequate basis in law.

When a case is brought before a judge, and it appears that he has had a previous connection with the case as counsel for one of the parties, he very properly refuses to act. It is not necessary that he should act, because there are other judges of equal authority with himself who can act as well and as authoritatively. It is not proper that he should act, because a judge should be absolutely neutral. He should have no interest in either side, and should represent no interest in either side; and he should be, as far as possible, free from all suspicion of having any such interest. But Mr. Ballinger is not a judge. He is not appointed to act as a neutral umpire between two contesting parties—the Cunningham claimants and the people of the United States. He has been appointed trustee for the people. They are owners of large landed estates. These estates cannot be managed by popular vote. They can be managed only by a competent representative acting for the people and in their interest. It is the duty of such a trustee, not to maintain an attitude of neutrality between his wards and hostile claimants, but to use all his skill and all his official power to protect the interests of his wards against hostile claimants.

Nor can he transfer his duties and responsibilities as counsel and trustee for the people to a subordinate. The duties of a trustee are not thus transferable at the pleasure of the trustee. Let us suppose, for example—and we believe that this supposition is in substantial accord with the facts—that his subordinates reach a different conclusion from that which Mr. Ballinger had reached. May the Secretary sign away the property of his wards to claimants whose claims he has himself investigated and adjudged to be unfounded, and justify himself to his clients, the people, because a subordinate thinks they are well founded? Would any trustee in private life be justified in so doing? Would any lawyer think he might sacrifice vast pecuniary interests of his clients to claims which he thought unfounded because a managing clerk in his office dissented from his opinion and thought those claims well founded? If a trustee thinks that his prejudices, his interests, or his past connections make him incompetent to act as trustee, or if he thinks that the public suspicion of his prejudice or his interest makes it inexpedient for him to act, he has but one course open to him—to resign the trust. He cannot properly retain the trust and turn over its duties and responsibilities to a subordinate. We do not hope that Mr. Ballinger will resign. We do hope that he will reconsider his declination to exercise any control over the course of the Department in respect to the Cunningham claims, and put unreservedly at the service of his clients, the people of the United States, his large experience and his acknowledged legal talents in protecting the property of the people against these claims. If they are well founded in law, there are courts to which these claimants can appeal. And certainly the patents which Mr. Ballinger has advised them that they are not entitled to ought not to be issued under his authority, unless his judgment is overruled by a court of competent jurisdiction.

Of course it is conceivable that Mr. Ballinger may belong to that decreasing minority who disbelieve in the conservation of the Nation's resources, and who think, or seem to think, that the shortest and surest road to National prosperity is to turn over as rapidly as possible all those resources to private enterprise to be used for private profit. This is conceivable; but it evidently is not the case. If

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it was, he would not have taken office under an Administration pledged to a reversal of that policy; nor would President Taft say in his published letter addressed to Mr. Ballinger; "From my conference with you, and from everything which I know in respect to the conduct of your Department, I am able to say that you are fully in sympathy with the attitude of this Administration in favor of the conservation of National resources."

The successful carrying out of that policy depends more upon Mr. Ballinger than upon any other member of President Taft's Cabinet. We look to him, and we believe the country looks to him, to make good President Taft's words by the vigor which he displays in protecting those resources from all questionable claims of private parties.

THE NEW NEW YORK

The celebration in New York last week commemorated the discovery of a river; it also afforded a rare opportunity for the discovery of a city, for New York is to a very large extent an undiscovered city. This is quite contrary to the general opinion of the country. There is a New York which is known everywhere. Strangers who come to town and spend a week at a fashionable hotel and go to the innumerable theaters of the city are quite familiar with it. The sensational magazines exploit it from time to time; the newspapers throughout the country are constantly reporting it and drawing lurid pictures of its doings, with portraits of the men and women who are paraded as its leaders. This melodramatic picture of colossal buildings, roaring streets, overluxurious hotels, demoralizing plays, and a fast and vulgar society has, of course, a grain of truth in it. No city with the attractive power of New York and its wealth has ever been without this kind of vulgarity and ostentation. No prosperous city in the country is without it. Ostentation, vulgarity, and sham are to be found everywhere from Boston to San Francisco, and they are to be found on a large scale in New York.

What the country as a whole does not know is the real New York: the city of boundless hospitality, the embodiment and the interpretation of that larger idea of America which is supplanting the old conception that the new country was to be but an extension of the habits, standards, and tastes of the English-speaking race. New York stands for a much greater idea, and has become the gateway to a new Nation. Nor has the metropolis been indifferent to the vast crowd of those who have come here to seek the same freedom, the same chances for growth, which the best type of Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Dutchmen sought here in the early days of the colonies. Its so-called fashionable churches are centers of the most ardent and strenuous work; its so-called popular preachers are in a large majority men as consecrated as the preachers in the remotest country districts and as much given to practical work, only that work is on a vaster scale. The philanthropy of New York, illustrated in institutions, in methods of dealing with the problems presented by the tenement-house population, in means of protecting and guiding the newly arrived immigrant, its educational facilities, not only in university and college and art gallery, but in high schools, industrial training schools and industrial art schools, are aspects of New York which the country as a whole has not discovered; nor does the country as a whole know its best society.

Architecturally, New York is only just being discovered by its own citizens. Americans returning from Europe are beginning to realize that the approach to the city is one of singular impressiveness and beauty. They are also discovering that the city itself, seen from the deck of a steamer, is as striking as any other city in the world. The beauty of Constantinople as one approaches it from the sea has been celebrated by many writers and reproduced on many canvases. As it rises above the water it is like a veritable chapter out of "The Thousand and One Nights." Its walls and towers, its red-tiled buildings, its silver-domed mosques, the dark green of cypresses, the fine harbor, the group of hills, the atmosphere which often envelops it at sunset and sunrise, invest it with a quality of beauty unlike that of any other city in the world. But when a landing has been made and the streets explored, only the traveler of

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imagination can retain that first exquisite vision in the awful disillusion of filth, shabbiness, homeless dogs, and general repulsiveness of sight and sound which assail the senses on every side. No one ought ever to enter Venice for the first time except at nightfall, when the last glow is in the sky or the early stars are shining above that city of enchantment; and Venice fulfills on more intimate acquaintance the promise of beauty which it gives the traveler at first glance. It is largely because cultivated Americans are always carrying Constantinople or Athens or Venice in their minds that they have failed to recognize the architectural effectiveness and the striking scenic setting of the New York of to-day.

The so-called sky-scraper, which has been heralded as an American monstrosity, but which is really a reproduction of the buildings of the Middle Ages adapted to modern uses, was accepted in its first examples as a necessity of commercial life which was likely to destroy the architectural effectiveness of our larger towns. Everybody who had architectural knowledge and tastes thought of the low line of Athens or the uniformity of Paris, and accepted the departure from this historical sky-line and regularity in New York as a fatal falling away from artistic standards. In like manner and for the same reason a great many people for decades past have regarded London as the most unpicturesque of cities because it did not possess the kind of picturesqueness which other cities rejoice in. As a matter of fact, London from certain points is one of the most picturesque cities in the world; and Englishmen and Americans are beginning to discover it. Mr. Henry James pointed out the extraordinary element of mystery which the smoke adds to the city; Whistler and Pennell opened the eyes of a host of people to the picturesqueness of the water-fronts and the old buildings; and Monet painted its atmosphere and sketched its bridges so as to make people aware of their artistic value. The cities of the New World will never have the special quality of Athens or Florence or Venice; but that does not mean that they will not have architectural qualities of their own and a picturesqueness which will express their setting and their life.

This is precisely what the New York of to-day is beginning to convey to people. Many of its sky-scrapers are hideous. They are mere boxes to hold commodities, and the architects appear to have thought of nothing save the utmost commercial use of every square foot of space on their hands. But many of the new high buildings are extremely impressive, not only because of their size, but of their treatment; and people are beginning to see the new city which is rapidly rising above the old city and is taking on magnitude undreamed of in the cities of the past, or, for that matter, in any other city of the present.

As usual, it has taken an artist to open the eyes of the inartistic. Mr. Pennell's etchings have done for the New York of to-day what Mr. Whistler's etchings did for the London of twenty years ago; and Mr. John C. Van Dyke's "The New New York," illustrated by Mr. Pennell (Macmillan), ought to be a text-book for the study of Americans who want to discover the New York of to-day. Mr. Van Dyke's study of the metropolis is at once sympathetic, open-minded, and critical. He does not sing any pæan over the material achievements of the city or its great industrial developments. He points out its want of coherence in architecture, the stupidities and inanities perpetrated by many of its men of wealth, and notably by those who have recently come into the city from other parts of the country. He emphasizes the fact that it has not the symmetry of Paris, and he also brings out the fact that this lack of symmetry is due to its intense democracy, to the self-assertion of the men who are building its great structures, and whose point of view is very like that of the Chicago man who is said to have remarked of Paris, "When you have seen one block you have seen the whole blamed town!" There will come a time when Americans will recognize that liberty lies as much in subordination of the individual will to the welfare of the whole community as in individual self-assertion. But that time is still remote, and until it comes Americans must expect to see all kinds of architecture in close juxtaposition. They may console themselves on the principle that misery loves company, by remembering that modern French architecture is for

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the most part more idiosyncratic and extreme in its expression of individuality than the American, and that the German *art nouveau* has created a great group of architectural monstrosities.

Americans who have no æsthetic taste and no architectural sense are still practical. And there is no reason why those who care least for beauty may not be brought to see the advantage of dealing with blocks as a whole, because the strong treatment of a group adds to the beauty and dignity of each individual building. The architecture of the Metropolitan Life Building, at Twenty-third Street and Madison Avenue, is not above reproach; but the effectiveness of treating the block as a unit, with the wonderful tower, must be apparent at a glance. What is being done in Cleveland, the striking plan for the beautification of Chicago described in The Outlook a month ago, the noble scheme for making Washington the most beautiful city in the world, which is steadily winning converts wherever it is seen, indicate the approach of a new day. Already much has been done. Many of the most beautiful modern buildings are in this country; and it is doubtful whether anywhere else in the world have so many beautiful homes been built during the last ten years.

Moreover, as so often happens when a great opportunity in any art comes, Americans have been fortunate in a group of architects of genius. Those who look for a reproduction of the architectural characteristics of older cities are doomed to disappointment. Such people need to be educated. Architecture is not an abstract science. It is, in its best estate, a vital art, intimately related to the needs of each community, and true and sound only when it grows out of and meets those needs. Mr. Van Dyke's interpretation of New York will not only enable a great many people to discover the city for the first time; but it ought to be of real assistance to those Americans whose eyes are still blinded, who are talking about the sky-scraper as a monstrosity instead of an adaptation of an ancient structure, and as if it were essentially ugly instead of presenting great possibilities of architectural effects and of noble sky-lines.

THE LABORATORY METHOD IN SOCIOLOGY

A popular writer on natural history has pointed out recently that the naturalist of a generation ago spent a lifetime in general observations, making copious notes of what he saw in the woods; the modern student brings the animal into his laboratory and studies it exhaustively at close range. This transformation in the naturalist's methods, typical of what is going on in every department of research, is suggested by one of the most recent volumes on sociology—Dr. Edward T. Devine's "Misery and Its Causes" (Macmillan). No book illustrates better the change that has come over economists in recent years. Dr. Devine is at the opposite pole, so far as method is concerned, from the older writers who busied themselves with considering what they called "the economic man." Moreover, because of the mass of data available to him from the Charity Organization Society of New York, of which he is Secretary, he has been able to push the laboratory method as applied to one field in sociology to a remarkable degree.

Dr. Devine spends no time theorizing on the causes of poverty. Instead he analyzes the data from thousands of cases with which the Charity Organization Society has dealt in an effort to learn the causes which have produced the appeals for aid. The value of such an inquiry is at once apparent. If the results show—as they do—that ill health is a serious disabling condition in three-fourths of the families that come under the Charity Organization Society, it is evident that better sanitation and more careful safeguarding of health are among the prime necessities of any campaign for the abolition of poverty. If it is discovered that much poverty is caused by the death of the breadwinners from industrial accidents, there is another defect in modern industry that must be remedied.

The first inquiry of the book covers the cases of five thousand families who received aid from the Charity Organization Society in the two years ending September 30, 1908. Twenty-five disabling causes are found, occurring in various combinations. More than half of these,

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however, including such defects as immorality, mental deficiency, unreliability, criminal record, and gambling, affect less than one-tenth of the families. Of the twelve chief causes, unemployment leads, for it is found in 69 per cent of the families. Overcrowding is next, affecting 45 per cent. In 29 per cent of the families widowhood is found. Chronic physical disability other than tuberculosis and rheumatism occurs in 27 per cent of the cases, and temporary disability other than accident and childbirth in 20 per cent. Intemperance exists in 17 per cent and laziness in 12 per cent. "The impression," Dr. Devine concludes, "with which we come to the end of a survey of these families is that the average of economic efficiency is low, whether it is due to physical disability, deficiency in character, a low grade of intelligence, or inadequate education."

A clearer idea of the real meaning of this investigation is obtained by a study of a group of one thousand families who applied for aid for the first time in 1906–1907, a normal year industrially. In these cases the twenty-five causes of disability have been reduced to eight. In these thousand families there is some kind of physical disability in 764, several kinds in some families; persons ordinarily wage-earners are idle in 669; there is some defect of character in 425; widowhood or desertion in 387; overcrowding in 324; comparative strangeness to environment in 182; more than three children under fourteen years of age in 169; and incapacity due to old age in 120. It is very rarely that any of these disabling causes appears alone. Two-thirds of these families present at least three of the adverse conditions. Thus, physical disability is found in connection with 82 per cent of the families where there is lack of work and in connection with 32 per cent where there is overcrowding. Unemployment appears alone in less than 2 per cent of the cases. Overcrowding is accompanied by defect of character in 44 per cent of the cases.

Such a study as this evidently gives a sound basis for social action, which Dr. Devine suggests. Ignorance and inefficiency must be battled against. Physical and mental disability can be cured, improved, or prevented. The labor market can be better managed and the number of unemployable can be reduced. The disastrous economic consequences of widowhood can be largely obviated by a proper system of insurance, and the amount of it can be greatly decreased by reducing to a minimum the premature deaths in middle age from disease and accident. Overcrowding, with its attendant physical and moral evils, can be lessened. The level of industrial efficiency of men can be raised and the domestic efficiency of women can be enhanced until the raising of four or five children will not be too great a burden for the average family, and old age can be provided for.

"Sound heredity," Dr. Devine summarizes; "protected childhood, a prolonged working age, freedom from preventable disease and from professional crime; indemnity against the economic losses occasioned by death, accident, illness, and compulsory idleness; rational education, charity, normal standards of living, and a social religion—these surely are not unreasonable demands. I hope one day to see them incorporated in a political platform." All of these remedies are based on conditions actually existing. They are not visionary and they do not involve an overturning of the social order. They offer a practical programme in which men and women interested in social betterment might well unite.

HAPPINESS HERE AND NOW

There is probably no single object on which a greater number of men and women are agreed as being the most desirable to obtain than happiness; nor is there any other object about which there are so many diverse opinions as to the best way of securing it. Many men and women are agreed, for instance, that happiness is a thing to be worked for; that it is to be found at some definite time and place; that it can be achieved only by conscious effort. They think of it as a place at a distance; as something created by skill and patience and toil; as a kind of material reward for material toil. All

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these are utterly misleading ideas. If a man is to be happy, he must be happy now; if he is to be happy, he must be happy here; if he is to be happy, he must be happy in himself and not in his conditions. A great many people speak of heaven as if it were a walled city, through the gates of which they hope, by some blessed mercy, to pass at some future time, at some distant place; not knowing that nobody enters heaven who does not enter it through the Gate of Life, and not the Gate of Death; and that life eternal begins now, or began long ago, but under no circumstances can begin in the future. It is a present possession. Mr. S. B. Stanton's book, "The Essential Life" (Scribners), which, in spite of some indirectness and occasional obscurity of style, is singularly fresh and suggestive, puts one essential aspect of happiness succinctly and with precision:

> Contentment is success. It consists in finding that we already have what we wanted, and in being happy from the outset instead of only at the end. If we exchange life for the mere means of life, we never live. A poor bargain it is to buy happiness at the price of our capacity for it. In the stampede of affairs we throw away the jewels of existence; and from time to time return sorrowfully along the road, if so be that we may still find them. But if I enjoy life, there is none wealthier; the spiritual fee is in him who perceives and appreciates rather than in him who possesses.

This is a capital indication of one of the fatal popular fallacies about happiness: that it lies at the end of a long and exhausting road, with the result that when we arrive at the end we are so spent and worn that the capacity for happiness has died out of us. This is the pathetic history of a great many lives which are commonly called successful; the lives of men who have spent themselves without thought or care to get wealth or position or power, and when the long-sought end has been reached, the far-off goal touched, have found themselves indifferent to or unable to get out of wealth or power or position anything except care and responsibility. The joy escaped by the way; happiness was never other than a receding vision on the horizon. If we are to have happiness at all, we must get it here and now; and we must get it by understanding clearly that it is not at a distance either in time or space, and that it is not in any external conditions; that the capacity for it is easily exhausted; that it is a desire of the soul readily dissipated; a beautiful possibility quickly sacrificed in the haste and tumult and passion of getting and spending, of working or worrying. They who are over-anxious, or who mistake the road, or who postpone to the indefinite future, commit the fatal blunder of buying happiness at the price of their capacity for it, and arrive at the end of the journey only to find that they have come alone to a place where no one meets them, and that they might have had a companion every step of the way.

THE SPECTATOR

The Spectator knows a slangy young collegian who says the Good Samaritan was a confoundedly lucky fellow to have got off without having his head punched. This philistine state of mind dates from that particular collegian's impromptu entrance into the life-saving business. He was in Boston—he wears the Harvard crimson on his hat-band—strolling up Tremont Street, when there was an alarm of fire. The chief's wagon had dashed by, and that hoarse-shouting, hatless fireman who clears the way for the ladder-truck, and already the peculiar thrilling ring and rattle of engines could be heard as the department swung out of Mason Street into Tremont, when a woman, with the desperate homing instinct of a distracted hen, started to cross the street. A hundred voices shrieked, "Look out!" Our collegian saved his breath. Dashing out, he seized that woman round the waist and hurled himself and her toward the curb. As they fell sprawling among the crowd, the department thundered by.

Our hero picked himself up, expecting to be overwhelmed with thanks. Not a bit of it! The rescued lady wore an inverted foot-bath for a hat, mounted upon an amazing erection of puffs curls. The edifice had suffered in the fall. Wherefore she turned upon her preserver and linguistically rent him limb from limb. No lady? Oh, yes, she was. That's the curious part of it. But her nervous sys-

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tem and her vanity had had a sudden jolt, and sputtering was the natural reaction. No doubt she remembers that Harvard man in her prayers. But not by name, for the abashed youth disappeared with what alacrity he could, convinced that you had better let a woman die a dozen deaths than disarrange her back hair.

Curious indeed are the reflexes of civilized human beings under stress. Altogether the oddest case of the sort came under the Spectator's observation on that dreadful day in Buffalo when President McKinley was shot. In company with thousands of other depressed Americans, he was wandering about the Exposition grounds, waiting for the evening blossoming of the lights. But that night, out of respect for the wounded President, no lights came up, or only so many as would serve to guide the crowds home. The result, scarcely anticipated by the authorities, was a simultaneous rush toward the gates of practically all the people on the grounds. Nothing like it had been seen before, even in the suddenest summer storms. The broad avenues were choked with a crowd which rapidly assumed the aspect of a mob. After the day's shock nobody's nerves were quite steady, and it wanted only such a crush as this to bring the tension to the danger point. The exits were as nothing to the struggling throng, and, in a panic, the guards reversed the entrance turnstiles, which, the Spectator remembers, could only be worked by a lever under the ticket-chopper's devoted foot. One by one, through these slow-turning stiles, the excited folk were tolled out into the open street to expand their crushed lungs and straighten their disheveled feathers. Just before the Spectator in the press was a dainty little woman who seemed in dire peril of extinction. He could hear her distressed breathing as the mob closed in almost over her head. As they were forced edgewise toward the stile, the Spectator threw himself savagely backward to avoid impaling her upon the revolving spokes. She slipped in, and the wretched ticket-chopper pressed the lever to release her as quickly as his aching muscles would permit. He was not quick enough for her. She turned and slapped that unoffending officer full in the face!

That impulse to retaliate upon somebody if the real offender can't be got at—how strong that is in the natural man, by no means least strong when the real offender is one's self. The Spectator never suffers an ignominious fall on the ice without having to repress an inward longing to call bystanders to account for the accident. You remember Fag, in "The Rivals"? "When one is vexed by one person, to revenge one's self on another who happens to come in the way, is the vilest injustice! Ah! it shows the worst temper—" Here enters an urchin sent to fetch Fag to his master, and in the midst of his protestations Fag falls upon the innocent messenger and beats him! The Spectator saw that spirit only yesterday in a neighbor's child not yet three years old. Playing about the door-yard, he contrived to break a brand-new whip. His face reddened with swift wrath. Holding the pieces dramatically aloft, he advanced scowling upon his mother. "There, now, mamma," he called, sternly, "just see what you did!" It is humiliating to find that under annoyance we advanced pupils in the school of civilization show ourselves not less primitive than he.

Without trespassing upon the preserves of the nature fakers, the Spectator can prove that here is a trait which man shares with the denizens of the wilds. For some weeks after the degradation of the historic old Boston Music Hall it was used as a den for wild beasts. One night, to dissipate the time between a hotel dinner and an appointment, the Spectator strolled in there to inspect the animals. It was scarcely a felicitous moment for the purpose. The place was empty of visitors, and during the surcease of pokes and peanuts the menagerie was for the most part fast asleep. As he moved dejectedly from cage to cage, getting broadside and most unsuggestive views of tawny backs and gently heaving hairy sides, he came upon a big black bear taking forty winks bolt upright in the front of his cage, with one great paw stuck

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through the bars. Behind him, curled into a somnolent ball, snored a little brown bear. A wicked thought popped into the Spectator's head. He would slap that hairy paw, hung invitingly through the grating, and see what a cross bear would do. Accordingly he "swatted" the paw handsomely. It was cowardly, he admits it; but the sequel paid. That big black bear came to with a snarl, and, without so much as waiting to get his eyes open, lumbered across the cage and soundly boxed the ears of that guiltless little brown bear!

So it goes in this wicked world—people of the best intentions get thwacked, while the guilty draw the prizes. The Spectator family has just produced two examples to the point. One day last week Mrs. S., having spent the morning at a millinery opening, came home eloquent over the monstrous deformity of the season's hats. As she stood expatiating with many gestures upon the idiocy of milliners and of womankind generally, the Spectator noticed a shopping-bag on her wrist. "Another new bag, my dear?" he queried, mildly. (She had bought one not a fortnight before.) She glanced down, then up again, with an expression of stupefied consternation. "Merciful powers!" she gasped; "where did I get that bag? I never saw it before in my life!"

An agitated examination of the strange bag revealed a quantity of bank-notes, a New York draft for a considerable sum, and—luckily—the card of a New York woman of fashion. The case was plain. Mrs. Spectator, having gone out with only a change purse in her glove, had sat down on a settle at the milliner's beside this bag, deserted for the moment by its owner, who was doubtless trying on hats. By sheer force of habit Mrs. Spectator's fingers closed on the handle of that bag when she rose to go, and so naturally did it swing on her arm that she did not give it a second thought. The friendly telephone soon put the distracted owner out of her misery, and the affair ended in profuse apologies from Mrs. Spectator and thanks from the injured party, who, in her relief at the recovery of the bag, was inclined to be as grateful as if Mrs. Spectator had made her a present.

Curiously enough—for the Spectator family is not much given either to finding or purloining other people's property—it was not three days after this that the Spectator stumbled, literally, upon a lady's flimsy chain purse. He must have looked foolish enough as he stood dubitating with the feminine futility in his hand, his face the while a map of conflicting emotions. One has a powerful reluctance to put another man's—how much more so a strange woman's!—property into one's pocket. Yet the Spectator could hardly be expected to proceed down Broadway with a silver purse glittering on his wrist. Already late for an appointment, he had no time to hunt up a police station. He slipped it hastily out of sight.

All the way home that night he thought, with a glow of satisfaction, how relieved and pleased the loser would be when he called her up on the telephone. For this purse was also very properly furnished with a card of identification, a card bearing an address in Jersey City. There was an antique gold ring inside it—an heirloom, no doubt, which could never be replaced. So, while dinner waited, the Spectator made a dash for the telephone desk. Yes, Mrs. E. was at home, and could presently be heard clicking downstairs to the receiver. "Good evening," Mrs. E.," the Spectator began in his most genial tone, "I think I have a silver purse belonging to you." "Yes," quoth the lady, and the voice had an unmistakable edge on it, "I *saw* you pick it up! I tried my best to catch up to you, but you rushed off at such a rate that I lost you in the crowd. That ring has no money value. If you'll leave it at the book-store, no questions will be asked."

The Spectator didn't hear any more, because he hung up the receiver! But consider! Mrs. Spectator wantonly snatches a bag to which she has not the shadow of claim, throws the owner into a panic, and gets heartily thanked for her pains. Her innocent spouse picks up a deserted purse out of the pure goodness of his heart, and, behold! *no questions will be asked!*

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HOW TO SPEND A BILLION DOLLARS

BY JONATHAN BOURNE, JR.

UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM OREGON

FOR the past twenty years Governmental expenditures have been growing entirely out of proportion to the increase in population and the increase in revenues from all sources. We have now come to the Billion Dollar Session, and are approaching the Two Billion Dollar Congress; and, with expenditures increasing at a much greater rate than receipts, the Government is confronted by the necessity for increasing revenues or decreasing expenditures.

The reader's attention is earnestly directed to the following tables, showing, by decennial periods, the population, Governmental revenues from all sources, appropriations, and the increase of each over the amount at the preceding decennial period:

		Per Cent of Increase.
Population:		
1880	50,155,783	
1890	62,622,250	24
1900	75,994,575	21
1910 (estimated)	89,620,555	18
Revenues from all sources:		
1880	$370,439,697 52	
1890	470,063,080 55	27
1900	675,845,451 13	43
1910 (estimated)	825,340,712 00	22
Appropriations for all purposes:		
1880	$372,119,629 30	
1890	385,522,367 61	3.6
1900	690,667,188 54	79
1910	1,044,401,857 12	54

If these tables were projected for a period of a few years, they would show a steadily increasing deficit and the necessity for borrowing money to pay running expenses in times of peace—a condition which has been resorted to but once since the Civil War. When Tom Reed silenced criticism of the "Billion Dollar Congress" by saying that this is a Billion Dollar Country, the public was apparently satisfied, because there was then a closer relation than now between receipts and expenditures.

Congress appropriates out of the Treasury all money to run the Government. These appropriations are based upon estimates of annual expenses for the next fiscal year. The various committees of House and Senate which handle appropriations study the estimates, which are submitted by all the departments through the Secretary of the Treasury, and prepare the various appropriation bills that provide for money to run the Government the ensuing year.

Up to the present time there has been no limitation upon the estimates that the head of each department could submit to Congress; neither has there been any person or committee with authority to revise or to reconsider these estimates before they were submitted to Congress. It was probably the intention of the statesmen in the early days of the Republic to give some supervisory power of this kind to the Secretary of the Treasury when it was provided by law that the estimates for the next fiscal year should be sent to the Secretary of the Treasury, and he in turn should make up a book of estimates for the whole Government and submit the same to Congress. It was probably thought that the Secretary of the Treasury, having charge of the Government's money, and being fully informed as to the receipts from all sources and the condition of the Treasury, would exert some sort of influence to keep the estimates within the bounds of the Government's income. But, whatever the intentions of the early Fathers were, no such power is to-day exercised by the Secretary of the Treasury. He is simply a co-ordinate member of the Cabinet, and it would probably precipitate a nice family row if he were to send back the estimate made by some department with instructions to cut it down to make it compatible with the condition of the Treasury.

Congress, of course, authorizes certain work by the departments, but the departments can estimate for as much clerical assistance or for as many supplies as, in the judgment of the Secretary of each department, they will need. The departments have been especially anxious to have their appropriations made in lump sums rather than have them made for

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specific purposes. A lump-sum appropriation gives the head of a department much more latitude in his expenditures than is given him by specific appropriations. Congress has gradually, however, been limiting more and more these lump-sum appropriations, and has been demanding of the departments specific estimates.

When these estimates are in the hands of the various committees, and the committees get to work, they call before them the heads of the various departments and have hearings on all items for which estimates are made. To each Cabinet officer his department probably seems the most important of all the departments. He, of course, gets wrapped up in his particular work, and becomes enthused over certain results which he thinks can be accomplished by his department, and naturally brings every pressure to bear that he can to get the money necessary to carry on his work.

With nine departments, each containing many bureaus, it is easy to see what a tremendous pressure is brought upon Congress for money; and during the sessions of Congress, when appropriation bills are being considered by the various appropriation committees, the duties of members of these committees are not altogether pleasant. Congress is sometimes unjustly blamed for not taking up various reforms. It is an easy matter to suggest many great and good things that could be accomplished by the Government, and this is done by many people, sometimes backed up by the press, when the little detail of how to get the money to pay for these things is entirely overlooked. Therefore, when the Treasury statistics began to indicate, a year or so ago, that the expenses of the Government were exceeding the income, and that very soon the Treasury would be depleted, it became necessary for Congress to determine some method of solving the problem.

The Sixty-first Congress inserted a provision in one of the appropriation bills requiring that when estimates of expenditures for the next fiscal year are submitted to Congress, if these estimates exceed the estimated receipts for the same period, then it shall be the duty of the President to recommend to Congress some means of reducing the expenditures without undue injury to the public service, or, if this be not practicable, then of increasing the funds of the Government by the imposition of new taxes or by negotiation of loans.

This provision of law was thought by many to be a wise one, as the executive departments spend the money, and they are under the direct control of the President in carrying out the provisions of law enacted by Congress. This view, of course, has some merit in it, but is not entirely a correct one, as the departments are bound to carry out the provisions of law authorizing certain work and improvements, and if Congress authorizes larger expenditures than are warranted by the condition of the Treasury, that branch of the Government ought to share the burden of meeting and remedying the conditions.

This general financial aspect induced the Senate during the special session of the Sixty-first Congress to create a Committee called the Public Expenditures Committee, consisting of Senator Hale, Acting Chairman, and Senators Aldrich, Warren, Perkins, Penrose, Dolliver, Clapp, Nelson, Gamble, Crane, Carter, Bourne, Cummins, Burton, Root, McLaurin, Newlands, Owen, Fletcher, and Hughes. The first seven members of the Committee are the chairmen of the seven committees in the Senate to some one of which every bill providing for revenue or carrying an appropriation is submitted. Thus is provided a medium for better co-ordination and co-operation between what may be termed the revenue and appropriation committees. The powers of existing committees are not affected, but an avenue is provided for concentration and distribution of information—a committee forum for the discussion and recommendation of fundamentals affecting the Government, such as standardization, centralization, simplification, elimination of duplications—in short, the application, wherever possible, of business principles to the conduct of the Government.

The duties of this Committee are thus prescribed in a resolution agreed to by the Senate on May 29, 1909:

Resolved, That the Committee on Public Expenditures be, and they are hereby, authorized and directed, by subcommittee or

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otherwise, to make investigations as to the amount of the annual revenues of the Government, and as to the expenditures and business methods of the several departments, divisions, and branches of the Government, and to report to the Senate from time to time the result of such investigations and their recommendations as to the relation between expenditures and revenues and possible improvements in Government methods; and for this purpose they are authorized to sit, by subcommittees or otherwise, during the recesses or sessions of the Senate, at such times and places as they may deem advisable, to send for persons and papers, to administer oaths, and to employ such stenographic, clerical, expert, and other assistance as may be necessary, and to have such printing and binding done as may be necessary, the expense of such investigations to be paid from the contingent fund of the Senate.

The creation of this Committee and the enactment of the provision of law referred to above, throwing certain responsibilities upon the President, bid fair to be landmarks in regulating Governmental financial operations.

Various committees of Congress have from time to time made Governmental investigations, but never before has either branch of Congress created a permanent committee with such important and extensive duties as those with which this new committee is charged. It is true that in 1814 there was created in the House of Representatives a Public Expenditures Committee, but after two years its duties were divided among six other committees, which have since been increased to ten—one on the expenditures in each of the nine departments of the Government and one on expenditures on public buildings. These various House committees appear to be clothed with ample power to supervise expenditures, but as yet satisfactory and practical results have not come from their creation. Reforms along this line must come from some central committee with authority to supervise the expenditures of all departments, and not from ten separate committees, each working independently of every other, because out of this very method of many independent units in the Government departments have largely come the difficulties and unsystematic methods of Government business.

The English House of Commons has a committee with duties in part similar to the duties of the new Senate Committee on Public Expenditures, that is, the Committee on Public Accounts of the House of Commons, whose duty it is to follow up all appropriations and make a careful examination into any apparently irregular expenditure. In England, in the last two months of every year, the estimates for the army and navy and the Civil Service are presented by the departments concerned separately to the Treasury. There they must be considered and approved. If approved, the Chancellor of the Exchequer then submits the same to the House of Commons sitting as the Committee of Supply. If as such committee the House of Commons " agrees " to the estimates, then the House sits as the Committee of Ways and Means and votes the appropriations. There are in England also the Auditor and Comptroller, who perform similar duties to those of the American Auditor and Comptroller, but it is apparent from the annual reports of the Committee on Public Accounts of the House of Commons that they find valuable work to be done along the line of investigating expenditures. Their annual report is voluminous and is filled with much information, and it would appear that much of the system of this Committee could be very well adopted by the Committee on Public Expenditures of the United States Senate. In France the Cour des Comptes controls the finances and examines accounts judicially, and makes reports to the Chamber as to irregularities of the law of the budget. France also has an audit system similar to other nations. In Germany, Italy, and several other European nations are courts of accounts with general authority and control over public expenditures. These governments, being older than ours, and having had longer experience, have found that the ordinary system of governmental audit and control is not sufficient. In our own Government an Auditor investigates the accuracy and a Comptroller the legality of appropriations, but heretofore no administrative, representative, or legislative committee has been specifically empowered with general authority to consider their relative propriety.

Many people seem to have the idea that the Government is some sort of mystical piece of machinery endowed with

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many powers little less than supernatural and excepted from all laws of profit and loss that govern the common mortal. But the truth of the matter is that the Government is a huge business concern. This is very apparent to those who have spent some time in Washington and have seen the Government, through its officials, taking in money for the sale of public lands, patent fees, copyright fees, head tax, timber, mineral, and fishing rights, custom-house receipts, and from other sources too numerous to mention, and then witnessed the expenditure of this money for clerks, stenographers, typewriters, accountants, telephone and telegraph service, stationery—in fact, everything from a lead pencil to a battle-ship.

In one sense the United States is the largest business corporation in the world. Viewing it as such, and estimating it to have a capital of $140,000,000,000, which I estimate as our National wealth, ninety millions of stockholders as the probable population, Congress as the board of directors, the President's Cabinet as the executive committee (with the difference that the Cabinet members have no legislative vote), and the President as chairman of the executive committee, the desideratum is seen to be the application of the best known business principles to the conduct of the Government.

When it is noted that the appropriations for the fiscal year 1910 are over a billion dollars, exceeding the estimated revenues for that year by over two hundred millions of dollars, it will immediately be seen that the Government must either increase its income or reduce its expenses. One of the functions of the Committee on Public Expenditures should be to ascertain whether all the estimated expenditures are immediately necessary for the proper maintenance of the Government, and, if not, what proportion of the same could be postponed without militating against Governmental efficiency, and especially to investigate and ascertain where improved business methods could be adopted to secure increased efficiency in the departments of the Government.

It is true that Congress alone has the power to make appropriations, but the responsibility for the appropriations must be partially borne by the administrative branch of the Government, as the estimates are made by the administrative departments and submitted to Congress. The departmental estimates form the skeleton on which Congressional appropriations are made. And probably two evils exist—the desire of the departments to secure as large appropriations as possible and the desire of the member of Congress to secure for his district or State as large a share of the "pork barrel" as possible.

That Congress has been extravagant in the past is apparent when one considers that the House of Representatives has almost four hundred members and the Senate ninety-two, most of whom seem to be interested in getting appropriations for their districts and States aside from the permanent Government appropriations. Perhaps no one thing has caused more criticism of Congress in the past than the "pork barrel bills," of which the Rivers and Harbors Bill and the Public Building Bill are notable examples. It will be seen that much reform along this line can be accomplished by Congress itself. These reforms will be difficult to work out until members of Congress and their constituents take a broad National view of all matters of legislation, and are not willing to sacrifice National good for their own local popularity and advantage.

The truth of the matter is that until a short time ago the Government had been so prosperous and there had been so much money in the Treasury that extravagance was encouraged. A feeling existed in the various departments that they should ask Congress for all the money they could hope to get, and then spend every cent they got. More than this, the departments formerly came to Congress with great deficiency statements and asked for additional money to pay expenses of the previous year. This custom became so general that they paid little attention to the regular appropriations and expected Congress to make good the deficiencies. To stop this, Congress enacted a provision directing that no deficiencies be created except under extraordinary circumstances arising out of unforeseen conditions involving the loss of life or destruction of property. The creating of a deficiency for the ordinary expenses of the Government was prohibited. This resulted in a saving of

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millions of dollars annually. In my opinion, a still further improvement would be gained if Congress prohibited all deficiencies, unless specifically authorized by the President.

In addition to the great good the Committee on Public Expenditures can do by arousing in Congress a more hearty co-operation in limiting appropriations to the actual needs of the Government and in enacting legislation with a view to National rather than local interests, it is probable that this Committee can accomplish material results by stimulating the departments, by legislation or otherwise, to adopt improved business methods. There are at present nine departments of the Government, each containing many bureaus, and these, together with the Government Printing Office, Smithsonian Institution, the Congressional Library, and the Inter-State Commerce Commission, comprise each a separate unit of business. In many instances each bureau has its own particular methods of purchasing supplies and transacting its public business. Within the last three years an investigation by the Keep Commission along this line showed that the Government was purchasing twenty-eight different kinds of ink, two hundred and seventy-eight different kinds of pens, eleven different kinds of typewriter ribbons, and one hundred and thirty-two different grades of pencils. One department was paying $1.70 per dozen quarts for ink, another was paying $3.70 per dozen quarts. This was a fair example of the lack of standardization and system in the Government service, and when it is recalled that each Congress is appropriating over a billion dollars which is spent in this irregular, haphazard, and unsystematic way, it can readily be seen that the time is at hand for improvements. It would seem that there is great opportunity for simplification, centralization, and standardization in Governmental methods.

Of fraud in the Government service there can at present be but very little. The Government officials are, as a rule, high-class men, and the great majority of Government clerks are efficient, capable, and honest. But the Government has grown so rapidly that it is questioned by many whether or not the departments have been able to keep up with modern methods in the conduct of their business. This will present to the Committee many problems for solution, which will probably result in various readjustments of Governmental methods.

Some of the large appropriations for the last fifteen years can be explained by the expense incident to the Spanish-American War and the expense of carrying out the reform legislation under President Roosevelt's administration. These explanations, however, do not suffice for many heavy appropriations. But, whatever the cause of this tremendous increase in expenditures, or however justifiable it may be, there is presented the question of a probable deficit in the Treasury. Whatever has been done, the money that has been spent cannot be recovered. But the time is at hand when the people of this country will demand of Congress that economy be practiced, and that the best business methods be installed in all the Government departments. The people of the United States do not want their Government run on a parsimonious policy, nor are we a penny-wise-and-pound-foolish public; but Americans are probably the most practical people in the world, and when their attention is properly called to this subject, they will demand economical management.

There is no incident of Government that comes home to people any stronger than the subject of taxation, and this whole matter is so closely related to taxation that it is of great public concern, because, if reforms are not adopted along this line, the citizens will soon be paying direct taxes to run the Government.

After all, the most important consideration is not the amount of money taken in by an individual or the Government, but the amount that is spent and the manner in which it is spent. The Government's money is the people's money and the Government's business is the people's business. Certainly the people are entitled to know that their money is being expended according to the best known business methods, and that not a dollar is needlessly wasted. In this matter, as well as in many others, the Government of the United States sets an example to its individual citizens. In

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this matter of improving the business methods of the Government and limiting extravagant appropriations the general public ought to give strong support to Congress, for this is good administration and for the benefit of the whole people. Viewing it from the standpoint of party policy, it is my judgment that good administration is the best politics, and, in fact, no other kind of politics should receive the approval or indorsement of any public official. But this, as is the case with many other reforms, passes out of the class of partisan politics and enters the realm of general National welfare.

The Committee on Public Expenditures of the United States Senate establishes a medium in the legislative branch of the Government for unified collation of data and dissemination of information. It should also act as a further medium for the better co-operation and co-ordination of the legislative and administrative branches of the Government. Its functions do not necessarily infringe upon or minimize the powers of any other committees, and especially those committees to which appropriation bills are referred. It is not a committee of espionage, either on other committees of Congress or on the administrative branch of the Government, but a committee of co-ordination and co-operation.

Therefore it can readily be seen that probably the most important committee that has been created in Congress in many years is the new Senate Committee on Public Expenditures.

SUMMER VESPER SERMONS

THE TEMPLE: LOVE

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

He that is not with me is against me; and he that gathereth not with me scattereth. Therefore I say unto you, Every sin and blasphemy shall be forgiven unto men; but the blasphemy against the Spirit shall not be forgiven.—Matt. xii. 30, 31.

LOVE has many phases: love of husband and wife, parent and child, friend and friend, neighbor and neighbor, are not the same. Love does not always mean congenial fellowship. There is no reason for imagining that the Good Samaritan found the despoiled traveler an agreeable comrade; certainly Jesus did not find comradeship in Judas Iscariot, and yet it is said that, having loved his own, he loved them to the end.

There is in all the various inflections of love one common element; if that is present, love is not lacking; if that is lacking, what we sometimes call love is but a spurious counterfeit. That common element is a sincere desire for the welfare of the loved one. No passion of the husband for his wife can serve as a substitute for this simple desire for her welfare dominating his life and controlling his actions. When the *pseudo* reformer tells us that marriage without love is a profanation and that when love ceases the marriage tie should be dissolved, what does he mean? Does he mean that when passion ceases, the marriage tie should be dissolved? That is not true. Passion does not sanctify marriage; marriage sanctifies passion. Or does he mean that when this simple and sincere desire for each other's welfare ceases, the tie should be dissolved? But neither has a right to allow that desire to cease. Passion is spontaneous; it is not obedient to the will. But love, the love that suffers long and still is kind, never should be allowed to die. It is immune, not from pain, but from sickness and death. The indulgent mother who cannot bear to deny her child any wish or to enforce upon him any command thinks she loves him too much. No! She does not truly love him at all; because she does not desire his welfare. Kisses and caresses can never take the place of this masterful motive of true, helpful service. This motive may be

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accompanied by emotions which bring the holiest joy or the bitterest sorrow; but if it is not strong enough to endure the bitterest sorrow, if it is not stronger than the most tumultuous joy, it is not true love; certainly it lacks something of being perfect love.

To love my neighbor as myself is not to rejoice in his companionship, to find in him a congenial comrade, to share with him the same pleasures and the same sorrows, to enjoy the same pictures or books or music, to hold the same opinions, to live on the same intellectual and moral plane. It is to regard his welfare as of equal importance to me with my own. To love my enemy is not to be moved by a passionate devotion toward him; it is not even moderately to like him. It is to be moved by his enmity to wish him not evil but good. Paul has defined what is meant by loving one's enemy: "If thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink." Christ has defined what he means by loving one's enemy: "But I say unto you, Love your enemies, bless them that curse you, do good to them that hate you, and pray for them which despitefully use you, and persecute you."

The law of love thus interpreted, the law that we are to regard our neighbor's welfare as we regard our own, is the condition, and the only condition, of true abiding social order. He who regards his neighbor's welfare as his own will not oppress him, nor rob him, nor vilify him. This is what Paul means by the saying, "Let love be without hypocrisy. Abhor that which is evil; cleave to that which is good. In love of the brethren be tenderly affectioned one to another; in honor preferring one another." If the laborer regarded his employer's welfare as his own, and the employer regarded the workingman's welfare as his own, there would be an end to strikes and lockouts; the controversies would be kindly controversies and easily adjusted. If the maid regarded the welfare of the mistress as her own, and the mistress regarded the welfare of the maid as her own, the domestic problem would cease to be "the greatest plague of life." If the merchant regarded the customer's welfare as his own, and the customer regarded the merchant's welfare as his own, there would be an end to "it is naught, it is naught, saith the buyer, and goeth away and boasteth." If the white man regarded the negro's welfare as his own, the race problem would be easily solved. Love would no more mean social comradeship between the races than it means social comradeship between individuals; but it would mean justice and fair dealing. If each nation regarded the other nation's welfare as its own, war would cease and we could beat our swords into plowshares and our spears into pruning-hooks. In individual and in international relations we would no longer attempt to make a profit out of one another's necessities. Whether our labor system was slavery, or feudalism, or capitalism, or Socialism, or some other system yet to be discovered, would be, not a matter of no importance, but a matter of secondary importance. If the master regarded his slaves' welfare as his own, slavery would be not unendurable. This is the meaning of Paul's much-debated letter to Philemon, sent by the hand of Philemon's slave Onesimus: "If then thou countest me a partner, receive him as myself." It was because the early Christians regarded the welfare of their slaves as their own that slavery was gradually abolished, without a war of emancipation and without even an industrial revolution. This spirit of mutual regard for each other's welfare is more important to social order and social welfare than any change in the social order, however important. In truth, the main question covering every proposed change in the social order is this, Will it tend to promote the spirit of social brotherhood?

To love God with all the heart and soul and mind and strength is to make God's welfare, that is, the progress and prosperity of his work in the world, one's supreme desire. As to love one's neighbor as one's self is the secret of social order, so to love God with all the heart and soul and mind and strength is the secret of all high, holy, and joyous living. To love God is not to sing praises to him, nor to utter prayers to him, nor to offer sacrifices to him, nor to make contributions from one's purse to his Church. This may help or it may hinder. It helps when it promotes the love that is service;

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it hinders when it takes the place of the love that is service.

The history of the child in the family is in microcosm the history of the human race in the world. The child in the cradle knows nothing of the world, of its fellows, or of itself. It knows not how to use the eyes, or hands, or feet. It knows nothing of the rights of persons or property; of the duty of truth and the evil of falsehood; of the dangers of self-indulgence and the necessity of self-control. The parents must teach it that it is in a world of law, must help it to ascertain what those laws are, must train it to habits of obedience to law. Gradually, very gradually, it grows up to take possession of itself and of its world. From its earliest infancy God has been training the human race. Gradually under that training it has been emerging from a purely animal condition into one of spiritual mastership. Gradually it has been developed into a spiritual consciousness of its Father and its own divine nature. Gradually it is beginning to see that the end of life is that it may become worthy to be its Father's companion and enter into full fellowship with him. To devote one's self to working with the Father to accomplish the Father's ends—this is to love God; to devote one's self wholly and unreservedly to this work is to love him supremely. Says Hegel: "God governs the world; the actual working of his government—the carrying out of his plan—is the history of the world."[1] To join with God in carrying out his plan, so to join with him in this work that it shall inspire all one's enthusiasm, determine finally and forever the direction of one's life, employ all one's intellectual energies, and both create and employ one's powers, is to love God with all the heart, and with all the soul, and with all the mind, and with all the strength. This is what Paul means by the saying, "God was in Christ re-uniting the world to himself, and hath committed unto us the word of reconciliation." By his manifestation of himself in the life and career of Jesus of Nazareth, God has made clear to men what is his heart's desire for his children, and to them he has intrusted the carrying on to its completion this work of lifting men up into such companionship with him that he shall be in very truth the Father of whom every family in heaven and on earth is named. That is the end of evolution, the meaning of redemption—one is the scientist's word, the other is the word of the theologian for the same historic process—a new humanity in fellowship with God, a new social order which shall be founded on righteousness, on the spirit which regards another's welfare as he regards his own, which shall be the abode of peace or universal good will, and shall be the promoter of joy or universal welfare in holiness, that is, healthfulness of spirit.[1]

When one understands history as Hegel understands it, when he thus enters into life as Paul interprets it, life takes on a new aspect. Such a one never thinks of asking, Is life worth living? Drudgery disappears, the secular becomes sacred, the insignificant shares the greatness of work to which it contributes. The compositor shares with the editor in the greatness of journalistic service; the porter shares with the banker in providing the community with what is a necessary medium for the mutual exchange of services; the brakeman sees himself a co-laborer with the great corporation in making the highway which binds East and West and North and South together; the maid realizes that the health and happiness of the community rest on its homes, and the health and happiness of the homes on the kitchen.

With this apprehension of the greatness of all work because it is work for God comes the added apprehension because it is work with God. For Thomas à Kempis's declaration, "The fathers were strangers to the world, but near to God and were his familiar friends," the worker for God substitutes, "I will be a friend to the world, because near to God and his familiar friend." This is to bear burdens, confront and conquer dangers, endure patiently the frets and worries of the world because a part of the play of life—the more to be done, the more to be endured, the greater the joy of the service. The petty problems of life—of dress and food, social prestige and business success—slip away, or take their place as part of

[1] Hegel, "Philosophy of History."

[1] For the kingdom of God is not meat and drink; but righteousness, and peace, and joy in holiness of spirit. (Romans xiv. 17.) Not the Holy Spirit: the definite article is wanting in the original.

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the great problem how to do one's work valiantly and well. The insoluble mystery of life ceases to be depressing. Since in its entirety it is too great for our solution, we grow content to study it item by item, and solve the parts that are set before us, as a subordinate engineer might figure out the problem given to him by his superior without attempting to map out the whole enterprise. The greatness of the work, to which one can contribute but an inappreciable trifle, inspires an enthusiasm commensurate with the work—not with our inconsiderable share—and makes it possible for one to put into his own special work, however humble, not only his strength and his mind, but the whole of his heart. Every new problem presented, every new difficulty encountered, every new experience of intellectual dullness, spiritual inertia, or selfish short-sightedness in his neighbor, adds to the flame of his ardent ambition of service. If any reader does not understand what I mean, or thinks me extravagant in my portrayal, let him read the life of General Armstrong or of Dr. Grenfell, then he will criticise my description as far short of the reality.

The body is the temple of a holy spirit which we have from God, whose offspring we are. To use our ears and eyes to receive impressions of truth and purity—impressions that will fit us for service; to make our words the expression of a real life of the spirit and a minister to the real life of others; to put our hand with energy to what work Providence puts in our way; to keep on our way undaunted by any fear, unhalted by any disaster, to make our appetites and passions the servants, not the master, of the soul; to people our imagination with ideals which will inspire to higher and holier living; to recognize the authority of conscience as a lawgiver, and to make the life and teachings of Jesus Christ the standard for our conscience; to look at the things which are unseen and eternal as well as at the things which are seen and temporal; to use the reason to correct the errors of our vision, not as a substitute for it; to regard the welfare of our neighbor as we regard our own; and to make the progress and prosperity of God's work in the world our supreme and final concern, the secret of an unquenchable enthusiasm and the reservoir of an inexhaustible strength—this is religion.

OVER BEMERTON'S[1]

BY EDWARD VERRALL LUCAS

CHAPTER XXV

I ASSIST AT TWO WEDDINGS AND HAVE THE BEST OPPORTUNITY FOR CONTRASTING THE GRAVE AND GAY

LIFE has just been varied by two weddings—two: one serious and the other most distinctly the reverse. I attended both.

The first wedding was that of Alf Pinto and Bonnie Birdie Twist; the second—but let us take them in order.

Bonnie Birdie Twist, as her name may suggest, is in the profession too, a sprightly lady vocalist with a high kick and a wink of such caliber that it can carry with deadly effect to the uttermost standing-room.

She has not long entered her kingdom, but is firmly established there now, hardly less profitably than Alf himself. Her particular line of song is the confidential, involving responses from an audience only too ready to oblige, her latest success being entitled "Is there room in your lap for me?"—a question that produces in every Hall where she sings an Everlasting Yea that lifts the roof.

Such a lady would hardly have an ordinary wedding; and the ceremony to which I was invited by Mrs. Duckie, and from which I felt I could not abstain without hurting that good woman's feelings, was

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as far removed from the ordinary as a naphtha lamp is removed from an altar candle.

The wedding was, I can hardly say solemnized, but achieved under difficulty by a patient and tenacious Islington Registrar in the Maltravers Assembly Rooms, which had been taken for the occasion by Birdie's father. That gentleman, who is now a thriving publican and a very assiduous racing man, was once a heavy-weight champion boxer, while Mrs. Twist, whose plush gown sent the thermometer up five degrees, had her triumphs years ago as Polly Pearl the Coster Queen.

The Assembly Rooms were crowded with warm-hearted professionals in every kind of clothes but the expected, and jovial bookmakers and licensed victualers—all accompanied by their ladies, and all very gay from the moment they arrived, and gayer still as the day advanced, and the ceremony became more vivacious, and the ex-bruiser's generous flow of wine got to work, and appropriate excerpts from Alf and Birdie's répertoires rose in chorus; so appropriate, indeed, that it seemed as if they had been singing all their lives only by way of preparation for this exuberant festival.

Birdie's bridesmaids were her own sisters, both of whom are budding soubrettes, and four other friends with yellow hair. Be-trice had been implored by Alf to serve too, but she declined, partly on an impulse of natural prudence and partly because the legitimate drama, to which she is affiliated, must not be too friendly with the variety stage.

Alf's best men were a pair of famous knockabouts who took their duties very seriously, and, to the exquisite enjoyment of the father-in-law, insisted on treating Alf as a boxer in need of minute and exhaustive seconding. They fanned him with red handkerchiefs as he sat back in a state of hilarious exhaustion, and every one else within reach offered him refreshments from a black bottle, and generally and genially did all they could to relieve matrimony from the stigma of holiness.

The Registrar at first seemed a little scandalized, but after a while he resigned himself to the tide of facetiousness and was carried along upon its bosom as buoyantly as any.

The only uncomfortable people there were Mr. and Mrs. Duckie and myself; but it was easy for me, being a mere spectator, to retire into the background, whereas they, simple, affectionate creatures, were perforce in the very forefront of the battle.

Poor Mrs. Duckie was, I fear, more than uncomfortable, she was shocked and sorrowful. The marriage of her eldest son, I doubt not, had been in her thoughts these many years; and in her visions she had been present with dignity and pride, Mr. Duckie beside her in his very best, and Be-trice so captivating as to make the possibility of the second wedding—the wedding that grows from a wedding, as of course one always should—a certainty. The reality, in which she found herself an alien in a new world (but her son's) of light-hearted laxity, must have been very disturbing.

Mr. Duckie's discomfiture, as charming duettists and dashing serios with gamboge locks patted his cheeks and pulled his whiskers and complimented him on his new daughter-in-law, was more physical, and was another proof of the importance to their importance of important persons keeping to their own natural environment. Here was the autocrat of the Fleet Street grill-room and countless City dinners visibly abashed in broad day. There is, I suppose, no potentate so powerful that skillful transplantation could not make small.

Bonnie Birdie Twist, so soon to be Bonnie Birdie Pinto, or rather Duckie, had a smile for every one, and she continued to recognize her friends, with appropriate greetings, such as "Cheer-O Alice!" "What-ho, Bill!" even while the Registrar was reciting the most compromising of his sentences, which he did to a muffled rendering by most of the company of Alf's famous chorus, adapted by a quick-witted colleague:

"Mr. Right! Mr. Right!
Our Birdie and he have met;
So cheer up, girls, and wish them lots of luck,
And there'll soon be . . ."

but I must not transcribe further.

Could there be a scene more different from that provided on similar occasions

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by the Establishment?—and yet, I daresay, the knot will last as long and be as honorably respected as if it had been tied under even episcopal auspices. Certainly it could not last a shorter time than many that date from the chancel steps.

After the formality what fussing and congratulations! There was room for a few minutes on every one's lap for the bride, and room on hers for every one. Alf meanwhile was not idle, embracing and being embraced; while funny men flung their arms round Mrs. Duckie's neck and reduced her to a mass of scarlet confusion. Mr. Duckie meanwhile was finding his bearings at the buffet; Be-trice was the center of an admiring circle of lion comiques; and Ern was becoming the firm friend of a boy contortionist (known to the world as Ernesto, the Human Serpent), and rapidly losing his hold on the allurements of chauffing.

I moved among these strange impulsive confident creatures with the deepest interest. All were jolly, all were ready to give and take chaff, there was no faltering in repartee even if there was no subtlety. And all were fairly hard-working, honest-living folks, whose efforts were mainly directed to keeping the ball of pleasure rolling; that is to say, all were in a way unnecessary. I refer particularly to the professionals and the bookmakers; for I suppose that the licensed victualers, even in times of great national stress, when one can imagine music halls closing all around and race meetings neglected, would still be busy in their shirt sleeves.

Whether the professionals, the bookmakers, or the publicans interested me most, I cannot say; but all were a very curious society, living completely within their own boundaries, so very differently from ordinary persons, and to the casual observer so lawlessly, and yet obeying their own laws, too; wholly independent of religion, and yet getting through life with certainly no less kindliness and forgiveness and practical generosity to their names than professedly religious people, if not more; all English, and yet so thoroughly un-English; all busy, or at any rate living fatiguing lives, making money easily and spending it easily, living practically only for to-day. I was glad that I went; I was equally glad to escape.

I moved outside as soon as it seemed time for the couple to leave. They were to be driven off in a taxicab, with a comic driver and a string of boots trailing behind it like the tail of a kite. The ordinary bridegroom is careful to remove such appendages as soon as he can. It will give a vivid idea of the character of the Pinto-Twist wedding when I say that Alf spent some time in helping to fix this one to the cab.

Among the crowd outside I perceived Miss Wagstaff, who, seeing me, joined me, and we chatted together for awhile.

"What do you think of it all?" I asked, as her mouth curled sarcastically at the sight of the string of old boots and the comic men on the Assembly Room steps affecting to faint with grief into each other's arms.

"Very little," she said, bitterly. "They's too much alike. A quieter kind of girl would have done him more good."

I stole a glance at her. Had she been nursing a tenderness for Alf herself? One knows so little of one's fellow-creatures.

"And I'm tired of weddings, anyhow," she said.

At this point the crowd raised three cheers and then again broke into the chorus of Alf's great song, but in its original form:

"Mr. Right! Mr. Right!
He may not have knocked just yet;
But, cheer up, girls, he's putting on his boots,
And he'll soon be here, you bet!"

This they followed with Bonnie Birdie Twist's phenomenal success:

"Is there room in your lap for me?"

to which Alf replied by thrusting his head out of the window with a thundering "No!"—and so bride and bridegoom disappeared from view.

The point of Miss Wagstaff's nose soared higher in the air as we took a last look of the scene, and we then turned away together.

"After a wedding a funeral," she said. "I'm going to see how old Glendinning is. He was so bad on Monday that they had to take him to the hospital. That means getting another cataloguer, I suppose."

"Can't he recover?" I asked.

"Recover! There's nothing to recover on. He's just skin and bone.

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He's eaten nothing for years; nothing but gin."

I went with her to the hospital, and we were allowed to see the old man. By an extraordinary chance, one of the staff had been a pupil of his in the days of his prosperity as a schoolmaster, and there had been a recognition. The circumstance had turned Mr. Glendinning's thoughts again to that happier period. He was voluble, but quite unconscious of his surroundings.

Miss Wagstaff, with a tenderness of which I had not suspected her, sat by his side and held his hand. He did not recognize her, but called her Ellen and stroked her hair. Where was the real Ellen, I wondered. Never to see him again or be seen by him; that was certain.

As he became more delirious he identified himself more and more with his old post of authority. The weak tremulous lip of the tippler took on a firmness, his watery eye almost flashed. At one moment he was in class construing Xenophon, at another at the nets; but everywhere the instructor in command. "Don't shift your feet!" he cried to an imaginary batsman. "The ball won't hurt you!" So the old man had been a cricketer too!

We left him still raving, as the nurse called it, but to my thinking happier and nearer his right mind than he had been for many a long year.

And the other wedding?

For that I must go back a little into time. I told you about old Mrs. Wynne's efforts to find Drusilla a husband among the eligible young men of Ludlow and district. In vain. But a capricious chance can do on its head, as Dollie would say, that which not all the old ladies in Shropshire can compass with bell, book, and candle.

Drusilla, her visit ended, returned to London with a glad heart. She took her place in the express at Shrewsbury, in a third-class compartment with three other persons in it, and settled down to her novel, on excellent terms with herself and the world. She had done her duty and might now do something pleasant—a perfect foundation for peace of mind.

At Wolverhampton two of the three other passengers left, and, no other coming in, Drusilla found herself sitting opposite a clean-shaven, gray-eyed young man of determined but agreeable aspect, who was reading the British Medical Journal.

Being merely a man, and not obviously a male reformer, this creature naturally had no possible interest for Drusilla, or should not have had; but our little Drusilla, although still veneered with Purpose and Campaign and all the rest of it, was yet akin to the old Eve, too; and, after all, his eyes really were very clear and direct, and his mouth was at once firm and tender, and his hands looked strong and capable and were not wholly shapeless either. There had been worse hands at the Slade, where hands were supposed to mean so much.

It was easy to observe these, for they were holding up the British Medical Journal before his face.

Drusilla's thoughts left her novel.

It is a pity that Socialists have such indifferent tailors.

Why should they?

Surely it is possible to be interested in the higher ideals and also go to a good barber and keep one's knees from bagging?

At any rate, every one knows that there are exceptions to every rule.

No one would read the British Medical Journal unless he had some kind of intellect, even if one of the papers on the seat beside him was rather violently pink.

At Leamington the unexpected happened. A Japanese spaniel fell down between the train and the platform just before they stopped, and had a paw crushed by the wheel of Drusilla's carriage. She uttered a cry of anguish as she learned of the accident, and her companion leaped out and, extricating the little animal, examined the wound and comforted its owner.

Drusilla loved dogs, and the incident led to a conversation. He was a doctor at Thomas's. They talked all the way to London.

Where and when Drusilla met her doctor again I do not know, but she lost no time in doing so on our return from Venice, and electrified the family one evening very shortly after by announcing

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that she was giving up art and intended to be a hospital nurse.

It is an ordeal which many families have to undergo, and it brings forth in most the same blend of resignation, admiration, impatience, and satire. Naomi, who suspected nothing, defended and supported her sister; Alderley was vexed, in part, I think, at the conventionality of the decision from such an independent girl as his second daughter, and in part at the sacrifice of her painting lessons. Mrs. Wynne took it as it came, and hoped for the best, liking, moreover, the old-fashionedness of a step that seemed to involve a little drudgery and self-sacrifice; while Lionel said something about the uniform—"Not quite so fetching, perhaps, as the Salvation Army bonnet, but a jolly sight prettier than dingy Slade greens and browns."

All innocently I put my foot into it by saying that I hoped that her hospital would be Bart's, because I had an uncle who used to be on the staff there, and the circumstance had given me a kind of proprietary interest in the place. But Drusilla declared for Thomas's, and Thomas's alone, so emphatically as almost to give away her secret.

Lionel, who, for a thoughtless youth, has diabolical luck in his sharpshooting, went on to remark that girls who wished to be hospital nurses had always marked down their doctor first. Naomi told him not to be unkind; but Drusilla's cheeks confessed his accuracy.

As it happened, however, Drusilla never donned the uniform. There was no need.

By an odd chance I was the first person to whom she confided her secret. I say odd chance, because, although we have been happy enough together, I am not exactly a favorite with her. But young women in love, when they want a thing done, can make exceptions; and, as it happened, I was in the way of being useful to her conquering Adonis.

It seemed that suddenly, out of a clear sky, had dropped the offer of a medical post in Buenos Aires, at a high salary, the condition being that it was accepted at once. To me, therefore, as an old Argentinian, came Drusilla to ask if I advised it, and what was the hospital like, and would I give introductions if it was accepted—speaking vaguely of some one she was interested in, a friend of a friend, and so on; mystifications so time-worn as to wear every sign-manual of truth.

I disguised my divination of her secret and advised in favor of her friend's friend accepting the appointment, and promised to write any number of letters of introduction if she would tell me what name to call him by.

She blushed and was silent for a minute, and then she told me all, and expressed their intention, contingent, apparently, upon my opinion being favorable, of being married at once, as she had resolved to bear him company to the new post as his wife.

"Very well," I said, "but kindly let me know when the bomb is to be exploded in the family circle, and I will be careful to dine elsewhere."

If I smiled a little as she told her story, Heaven forgive me, for I would not willingly wound a young and ardent heart; but to have Drusilla's altruistic zeal to be a hospital nurse so suddenly laid bare was more than flesh and blood—at any rate the flesh and blood of my tell-tale lips—could stand. She took it very well, though, as we can take things when we are preoccupied or they make us happy.

Mrs. Duckie came in just as I was ready for Drusilla's wedding, and looked me over approvingly.

"It will be a nicer wedding than ours the other day," she said, a little wistfully. "I can't forget those comic men. The idea of comicalities at a wedding! But there, one never knows what the world's coming to! I sha'n't get my peace of mind back till Be-trice goes off. No comicalities then, I promise you. I mean to write to Canon Lyme to ask him as a great favor to oblige. His wedding sermons are beautiful. Not a dry eye."

The good woman, she is quite right. Weddings are for tears: only those guests who can cry really enjoy them.

I did not myself cry at Drusilla's—at least I produced no tears—but it was a melancholy occasion. Such was the haste that the two families had had no time to become acquainted, and we seemed to be engaged rather in some ceremony of hostility than of fusion. We fell naturally into sides, Montagus, almost, and Capulets.

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To add to the difficulty, the father and mother of the bridegroom were so much like several other members of their party that slights were of constant occurrence; but this is a common experience at weddings, where the newness of clothes cancels personality.

However, even weddings come to an end, and by four o'clock we were cheering a departing brougham on its way to Waterloo for Southampton and South America. There was no singing of "Mr. Right," but I felt very little uneasiness as to Drusilla's future. None the less, the more I revolved the matter that evening the more did I wonder that affectionate parents can ever give their consent to their children's marriage at all. I can understand a father having no particular objection to his son's wife, and a mother to her daughter's husband; but how a father can ever even tolerate his daughter's husband, or a mother the wife of her son, that is beyond my imagination. And that night, as I watched Alderley's gallant efforts to be gay at dinner, I realized my perplexity more than ever.

Life can be very hard on parents.

(To be concluded)

NEGRO DISFRANCHISEMENT AND THE NEGRO IN BUSINESS

BY BOOKER T. WASHINGTON

THE FOURTH ARTICLE IN THE STORY OF THE NEGRO

WHEN I began my work in Tuskegee in 1881, the colored people of Alabama had just been deprived—in a way that is now familiar—of many of their political rights. There was some voting, but few Negroes held office anywhere in Alabama at that time. The Negroes set great store by the political privileges that had been granted them during the Reconstruction period, and they thought that when they lost these they had lost all.

Soon after I went into Alabama a new President, James A. Garfield, was inaugurated at Washington. A little community of colored people not very far from Tuskegee were so impressed with the idea that the new Administration would do something to better their condition, especially in the way of strengthening their political rights, that, out of their poverty, they raised enough money to pay the expenses of one of their number to Washington, in order that he might get direct information and return and report to them what the outlook was. This incident struck me as the more pathetic because I happened to know the man who went on this errand. He was a good, honest, well-meaning fellow, but entirely lacking in knowledge of the world outside his own community. I doubt that he ever got near enough, even at the inauguration ceremonies, to see the President, and I am sure he never got inside the door of the White House. He returned to his people, at any rate, with a very gloomy report, and, although it was never quite clear whom he had seen or what he had done, the people understood what it meant.

The people did not say much about their loss. They preserved outwardly, as a rule, the same good nature and cheerfulness which had always characterized them, but deep down in their hearts they had begun to feel that there was no hope for them.

This feeling of apathy and despair continued for a long time among these people in the country districts. A good many of them who owned land in the county at this time gave it up or lost it for one reason or another. Others moved away from the county, and there were a great many abandoned farms. Gradually, however, the temper of the people changed. They began to see that harvests were just as good and just as bad as they had been before the changes

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which deprived them of their political privileges. They began to see, in short, that there was still hope for them in economic if not in political directions. The man who went to Washington to call on the President is still living. He is a different person now, a new man, in fact. Since that time he has purchased a farm; has built a decent, comfortable house; is educating his children; and I note that never a session of the monthly Farmers' Institute assembles at Tuskegee that this man does not come and bring some of the products from his farm to exhibit to his fellow-farmers. He is not only successful, but he is one of the happiest and most useful individuals in our county. He has learned that he can do for himself what the authorities at Washington could not do for him, and that is, make his life a success.

A large part of the work which Tuskegee Institute did in those early years, and has continued to do down to the present time, has been to show the masses of our people that in agriculture, in the industries, in commerce, and in the struggle toward economic success, there were compensations for the losses they had suffered in other directions. In doing this we did not seek to give the people the idea that political rights were not valuable or necessary, but rather to impress upon them that economic efficiency was the foundation for every kind of success.

I am pointing out these facts here in order to show how closely industrial education has been connected with the great economic advance among the masses of the Negro people during the last twenty-five years. If the effect of disfranchisement of the Negro was to discourage and in many instances to embitter him, industrial education has done much to turn his attention to opportunities that lay open to him in other directions than in politics. It has had the effect of turning attention to the vast quantities of idle lands in many parts of the South and the West, and in many instances has helped him take up these lands and make himself an independent farmer. It has turned attention to the opportunities in business and led him to perceive that in the South particularly there are opportunities for better service to his own race which he can perform more profitably than any one else.

The fact is that the colored people who went into politics directly after the war were in most cases what may be called the aristocracy of the race. Many of them had been practically, if not always legally, free, made so by their masters, who were at the same time their fathers, by whom they had been educated, and from whom they frequently inherited considerable property. They had formed their lives and characters on the models of the aristocratic Southern people, among whom they were raised, and they believed that politics was the only sort of activity that was fit for a gentleman to engage in. The conditions which existed directly after the war offered these men the opportunity to step in and make themselves the political leaders of the masses of the people.

In the meantime, however, between the close of the war and the period to which I have just referred, there had grown up a middle class among the colored people. This class was composed, for the most part, of men who had been slaves before the war. Some of them had been house servants, and had the advantage of intimate contact with their master's family; many of them had been slaves of that class of planters sometimes referred to in the South as the "yeomanry." Others had been field-hands on the big plantations. The majority had had very few opportunities before the war, except such as they had obtained in practicing the different trades which were carried on about the plantations. It is from this class that the greater portion of the Negro landowners has sprung; to this class that the greater number of mechanics formerly belonged; and it was from this class that the majority of the business men of the Negro race has arisen.

A farmer who became the owner of a large plantation of a thousand acres or more necessarily became something of a business man. Very likely he opened a store on his plantation in order to supply the tenants on his land. That was the case, for instance, with the Reid brothers, Frank and Dow, who live in Macon County, Alabama, about twelve miles from Tuskegee, at a little place called Dawkins. The father of these young men had for a long time leased and worked a large plantation of some 1,100

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acres. He was enabled to send his sons to school at Tuskegee, and after their return from school they leased 480 acres more, and subsequently added to that by purchase 605 acres, making a total of 2,185 acres of land under their control. A larger portion of this land they sublet to tenants, and as the necessities of the community they had formed manifested themselves, they established successfully a store, a cotton-gin, a blacksmith shop, and a grist-mill.

Frequently in the early days some young colored man who had worked in a restaurant or as a waiter in a hotel, after saving a little money, would start a business for himself in a small way. Gradually he would accumulate more capital and enlarge his business. That was the case of my friend John S. Trower, of Germantown, Philadelphia, who is now one of the leading caterers in the city of Philadelphia, and also with William E. Gross, proprietor of the Gross Catering Company, of 219 West 134th Street, New York. In Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore, and Washington there are a number of noted Negro caterers who began life in the small way which I have described.

Among the earlier caterers of New York was Peter Van Dyke, who owned a place at 130 Wooster Street. He became wealthy, and left his children and grandchildren in good circumstances. Another of these early caterers was Boston Crummell, father of the late Alexander Crummell, one of the first Africans to be ordained as a priest by the Episcopal Church. Boston Crummell was born in West Africa and brought to America when he was a child. It is an interesting fact that his son, Alexander Crummell, after having studied in Queen's College, Cambridge, England, went to Africa as one of the first colored missionaries sent out from this country to Liberia.

Thomas Downing, who kept the once famous "Downing Oyster House," was one of the early Negro caterers of New York. His son, George T. Downing, built the Sea-Girt House, at Newport, Rhode Island, and was afterward a caterer in Washington, where he became a friend of Charles Sumner, Wendell Phillips, Henry Wilson, John Andrews, and others of the anti-slavery party of that time.

Charles H. Smiley, who was born at St. Catherine's, Canada, and was at one time one of the leading caterers of Chicago, began his life in Chicago as a janitor, but was employed during his spare time as a waiter at dinners and parties. Francis J. Moultry, who in 1909 is still conducting a large catering establishment at Yonkers, New York, got his training and accumulated his capital for his business career as a waiter in New York City. Mr. Moultry was at that time one of the large taxpayers of his city. He owned stock in several of the Yonkers banks, and is proprietor of what is, or was a few years ago, the largest apartment-house in Yonkers. Mr. Moultry owned valuable realty in various portions of the city, and has more than once been on the bond of county officers.

The training which many of the colored servants received, both before and after emancipation, gave them a certain capital in the way of experience with which to go into business on their own account. Perhaps the most successful colored hotelkeeper in the United States has been E. C. Berry, of Athens, Ohio. Hotel Berry, as I learned when I visited Ohio, has had an almost National reputation. Mr. Berry was one of the most respected citizens of the town in which he lives, and so successful has he been in conducting his hotel that it is regarded by the citizens as one of the institutions of the town.

Mr. Berry was born in Oberlin, Ohio, in 1854. When he was two years old, he was taken by his parents to the little town of Albany, which is about seven miles below Athens. At that time there were a number of lines of the Underground Railway which, starting at different points on the Ohio River, passed through Albany and Athens. At Albany there was early established what was known as the Enterprise Academy for colored children, and it was at this academy that Mr. Berry obtained his schooling. He first came to Athens when he was sixteen years old, and went to work in a brickyard at the small sum of fifty cents per day, which was soon increased to one dollar and twenty-five cents. With the money that he earned in this way he helped to support the members of his family who were still living in Albany. Eventually

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he secured employment in Athens in a restaurant, and it was the training he received there that enabled him later on to start a little place of his own.

Mr. Berry was successful in business from the first, and finally, after giving the matter due consideration and talking it over with friends in the city, he made up his mind to open a hotel. It was an entirely new thing at that time to see a colored man in the hotel business in that part of the country, and Mr. Berry knew that he was going to meet with opposition on account of his race. He determined to overcome this prejudice by making his hotel more comfortable than any other in the city, and by giving his guests more for their money than they were able to get anywhere else, not only in the city, but in the State. One thing I remember which impressed me as indicating the care and thoughtful attention which Mr. Berry gave to his guests was the fact that at night, after his guests had fallen asleep, he made it a practice to go to their rooms and gather up their clothes and take them to his wife, who would repair rents, add buttons where they were lacking, and press the garments, after which Mr. Berry would replace them. Mr. Berry's hotel, I may add, is said by Mr. Elbert Hubbard, the lecturer, who has had an opportunity to test the quality of a large number of hotels in different parts of this country, to be one of the best in the United States.

There are a number of other successful hotel men among the members of my race of whom I have made the acquaintance in different parts of the country. Joseph W. Lee, who, until he died a few years ago, kept the very popular and successful hotel at Squantum, a summer resort just outside of Boston, was one of these.

Negroes, both before the war and after, entered very easily into the barber business, and there is no business, I may add, in which the Negro has met more competition from foreign immigrants. In many cities, both North and South, the Negro barber's trade is almost wholly confined, at the present time, to members of his own race. It is interesting to observe, however, that this has in no way lessened the number of Negro barber shops, and the fact is an indication of the increasing economic welfare of the masses of the Negro people. In spite of the competition which I have mentioned, some of the largest and best-conducted barber shops in the United States are carried on by Negroes.

As an illustration, I might mention the shop of George A. Myers, of Cleveland, Ohio, whose place of business is fitted up not only with all conveniences that you will find in other first-class shops, but also with some that you will not find elsewhere. For instance, when I was last in his shop, he had devised an arrangement by which a customer could be connected at once by telephone with any one he wished to speak to, and that without leaving his chair. He has also provided a young woman stenographer, to whom patrons can dictate business letters, if they desire, without interrupting the work of the barber.

Another business in which the Negro early found an opportunity to be of service to his people is that of undertaking. As far as they were able, the Negro people have always tried to surround the great mystery of death with appropriate and impressive ceremonies. One of the principal features of the Negro secret organizations has been the care for the sick and the burial of the dead. The demand that these organizations sought to meet has created a business opportunity, and Negro business men have largely taken advantage of it.

One of the first men to perceive the opportunity for colored business men in this direction was Elijah Cook, a Negro undertaker of Montgomery, formerly a member of the State Legislature of Alabama. Mr. Cook was born a slave in Alabama. He was several times sold on the auction block during slavery, and at one of these sales he was separated from his brother, of whom he has never since heard. He was taught the carpenter's trade, however, and after he had served his apprenticeship was permitted to hire his time for twenty-five dollars a month. When the Civil War broke out, Mr. Cook still paid his master's wife the stipulated sum per month, and continued to do so faithfully until he was emancipated. He was a leader in founding the first colored school in Montgomery, which was held in

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a basement, under a dilapidated church. He himself was one of the first pupils, and, after working hard all day, was a faithful attendant of the night school.

Right after the war there was no colored undertaker in Montgomery, and frequently the corpses of the colored people were hauled to the cemetery in rough wagons. Mr. Cook, seeing this, bought a hearse and went into the undertaking business for himself. He accumulated a small fortune during the twenty years or more that he was in business, and became one of the respected citizens of Montgomery.

James C. Thomas, who, at the time I write, is said to be the richest man of African descent in New York, made a large part of his fortune in the undertaking business. Mr. Thomas came originally from Harrisburg, Texas, where he was born in 1864. In 1881, while he was employed by a steamer plying between New Orleans, Mexico, and Cuba, yellow fever broke out in New Orleans. The boat he was on came to New York to escape the quarantine. It was thus, quite by accident, that Mr. Thomas became a New Yorker.

There have been Negro undertakers in New York, I have been informed, for over a hundred and fifty years. There were several Negro undertakers in New York and Brooklyn at the time Mr. Thomas went into business, but the larger part of the trade which should have come to the colored undertakers went to white men. In 1909 Mr. Thomas had one of the largest businesses of any undertaker, white or black, in the city of New York. He was, in addition, the owner of a number of valuable properties in New York City, and owned stock in the Chelsea National Bank of New York.

I shall have occasion to make mention, in another connection, of the success the Negro has had as a banker, real estate dealer, and as a druggist, and in some other forms of business. As illustrating, however, the variety of enterprises into which the Negro has entered, I might mention the fact that one of the best-conducted grocery stores in the city of Montgomery is run by Victor H. Tulane, who started in business in 1893, in a little building twelve by twenty in size, with no experience, and a capital of $90. Mr. Tulane in 1909 was doing a business of $40,000 a year. He has been for a number of years one of the trustees of the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute.

During my visit of observation and study in the State of Mississippi in the fall of 1908 I found that a large book-store, and, I was told, the only one at that time in the city of Greenville, Mississippi, was conducted by a colored man, Granville Carter. Mr. Carter told me that at one time there had been as many as five book-stores in the town, but he had succeeded, by close attention to business and offering his books at prices more favorable than his rivals, in outliving them all, until, at the time I was there, his was the only book-store in the town. He told me that he handled the entire book business of the county, and that he sold books in several of the adjoining counties. He regularly employs four helpers to assist him in the business, and at Christmas time he has been compelled to increase this number to ten.

In Jackson, Mississippi, H. K. Rischer had had for nearly twenty years, at the time of my visit, a practical monopoly of the bakery business. Mr. Rischer's bakery was one of the first concerns of its kind to be established in Jackson. His business, which amounts to about $30,000 a year, gives employment to twelve persons and was first established in 1881.

While it is true, as I have already pointed out, that the disposition of the Negro people to turn their attention more and more to practical matters and to business manifested itself at about the same time that I came to Alabama, and has grown with the increasing interest in industrial education, it is likewise true that only since 1897 or 1898 has there been any marked and rapid increase in the amount of business conducted by colored people. When the National Negro Business League met in Boston, in 1900, there were but two Negro banks in the United States; at the present time there are nearly, if not quite, fifty such institutions.

In order to illustrate the improvement of the general mass of the colored people in the South during the ten years since 1899, I shall take as an example the city

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of Jackson, Mississippi, where, in the summer of 1898, a special study was made of the economic condition of the people. Up to 1896, Negroes, who represented at that time more than half of the population, were not reckoned in the business life of the town. Few of them owned property of any kind. At the present time the Negro population is less than half of the total population of the town, and the 8,000 Negroes who make their homes there own, it is estimated, one-third of the area of the town, although this area represents but one-eleventh of the value of the city property. Negroes own, for instance, according to the tax records of the city, $581,580 worth of property.

A careful investigation brought to light the fact that about one-half the Negro families of that town own their own homes, while more than two-thirds of the houses in which the Negroes live are in the possession of their own race. Next to the possession of property, the amount of money deposited in banks by Negroes is an evidence of their economic condition. In speaking of this matter during the summer of 1908, the president of one of the prominent white banks said that Negroes had just begun to save their money during the last ten or twelve years. He was in a position to know, for Negroes had deposited in his bank more than $25,000. Altogether Negro savings in Jackson banks amounted, at the time, to something over $200,000, more than one-third of which was in the hands of the Negro banks.

Perhaps the most successful Negro business man in Jackson at that time was Dr. S. D. Redmond. Dr. Redmond received his medical training at the Illinois Medical College and the Harvard Medical College. When he settled in Jackson, ten years ago, he had practically nothing. At the time this is written he is President of the American Trust and Savings Bank, the oldest of the Negro banks in Jackson, and a stockholder in three banks controlled by the white people, as well as in the electric power and light company which lights the city streets. He owns two drug-stores, one of which is situated on the chief business street of the town. He receives rent from more than one hundred houses. There were in 1908 more than one hundred business enterprises conducted by Negroes in Jackson. Forty-five of these, including five contracting firms, did something like $380,000 worth of business during the years 1907 and 1908, and gave employment to two hundred and thirty persons.

It used to be said, before much was known about Africa, that the condition of the African people had remained the same in all parts of Africa through thousands of years, and nothing furnished so convincing a proof of the inability of the African to improve as the fact that during all this time he has not changed. I have already suggested in what I have written that an enormous change has taken place in the condition, in the feeling, and in the ambitions of the colored people in this country since they obtained their freedom a comparatively few years ago.

The Negro came out of slavery with a feeling that work was the symbol of degradation. In nearly all the schools conducted by Negroes in the South at the present time Negro children are learning to work. The Negro came out of slavery with almost no capital except the hard discipline and training he had received as a slave. In the years since that time he has not only become a large landowner and to a large extent the owner of his own home, but he has become a banker and a business man. He came out of slavery with the idea that somehow or other the Government, which freed him, was going to support and protect him, and that the great hope of his race was in politics and in the ballot. In the last decade the Negro has settled down to the task of building his own fortune and of gaining through thrift, through industry, and through business success that which he has been denied in other directions.

Many of the men to whom I have referred in this chapter, if I had time to relate their histories, would illustrate in their own lives the changes to which I refer. For instance, L. K. Attwood, the President of the Southern Bank, the second Negro bank in Jackson, Mississippi, was born a slave in Wilcox County, Alabama, about one hundred and fifty miles

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from Tuskegee, in 1851. He was sold on the block when he was eighteen months old. His mother bought him for $300 and moved with him to Ohio. In 1874 he graduated from Lincoln University, Pennsylvania. Two years later he was admitted to the bar in Mississippi. He served two terms as a member of the Mississippi Legislature from Hinds County, and has held the positions of United States Commissioner and United States Deputy Revenue Collector for the Louisiana and Mississippi districts. He is one of a group of professional colored men who have found that business pays better than politics.

While I am on this subject I should perhaps mention one other notable example of the business men who have found a larger opportunity in business than they did in politics. C. F. Johnson, of Mobile, Alabama, Secretary and General Manager of the Union Mutual Aid Association, was for many years Secretary of the Republican State Executive Committee of Alabama. He was for a time, also, Secretary to the Collector of Customs at the port of Mobile, but when Mr. Cleveland was elected President he gave up that position and took the position as elevator man instead. One day, after he had been there for some time, the new Collector, who had been appointed by Mr. Cleveland, noticed him there, and, thinking the time had come to complete his political housecleaning, dismissed him from that position. Because the new man whom the Collector had to take his place did not do the work satisfactorily, he asked Mr. Johnson to return. Johnson said he would come back if he could have the appointment for four years, but the Collector would not agree to that, so Johnson went permanently out of office and into business. He was largely responsible for the organization of the company of which he has been general manager, and is now one of the wealthiest colored men in the State of Alabama.

So far as I have been able to learn, no colored man has ever been classed among the millionaires, though several men have had the reputation of being in that class. A few years ago there was a colored man by the name of Wiley Jones in Pine Bluff, Arkansas, who owned a street railway, a stable of trotting horses, and a private trotting park. When he died, it was learned for the first time that he had investments in real estate in a number of large Western cities, but his estate did not reach, as I remember, more than one hundred thousand dollars. John McKee, of Philadelphia, was reputed to be a millionaire, but his estate in Philadelphia, when he died, amounted to but $342,832. Colonel McKee gave directions in his will that the rents and incomes of his estate should accumulate until the death of all his children and grandchildren. The fund was to be used to establish a college for the education of fatherless boys, white and colored.

Perhaps the nearest approach to a colored millionaire was Thomy Lafon, of New Orleans, who died December 23, 1893, leaving an estate appraised at $413,000, the bulk of which was divided among the various charities of the city of New Orleans. I understand, however, that Mr. Lafon had disposed of a considerable portion of his estate before his death, in order to found various charities.

Mr. Lafon was born in New Orleans, December 28, 1810, of free Negro parents. He began life as a schoolteacher; then he ran for a time a small dry-goods store on Orleans Street. As he accumulated a little money he began loaning it out at advantageous rates of interest, and went from that into land speculations, which made him very wealthy. Before he died he became much attached to the late Archbishop Janssens, and, under his direction, as I understand, began disposing of his fortune for philanthropic purposes. Before his death he had established an asylum for orphan boys called Lafon Asylum, and after his death he bequeathed to it the sum of $2,000 in cash and the revenue, amounting to $275 per month, of a large property at the corner of Royal and Iberville Streets.

Other legacies were in favor of the Lafon Old Folks' Home, previously established, the Charity Hospital of New Orleans, the several universities for colored children in New Orleans, and a number of charities in charge of the Catholic Church.

In this benevolent way the two largest fortunes which members of my race have yet accumulated were dispersed.

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That spirit of pure romance which gave much of Marion Crawford's early stories their charm and fascination is precisely the spirit which pervades the last tale to come from his prolific pen. "Stradella" captures the imagination and lures the reader by its old-time setting and its charming love story. The color, costume, movement, and life of Venice and Rome in the old days add vastly to the romantic element. Like Mr. Crawford's "A Roman Singer," this story has as a chief character a wonderful song-singer, but Signor Stradella is also poet and composer. He was an actual musician of the seventeenth century, and his famous song "Pièta Signore" is here made the climax of his imaginary love for the beautiful daughter of a Venetian Senator. In the romance he composes the song on the spur of the moment, and sings it before the Pope as a plea for pity and forgiveness for his wife and himself. The plot of the story shows all the ease of invention and smoothness of narrative which are universally recognized as characteristic of Marion Crawford. We particularly commend to lovers of Dumas the two villains of the tale, hired assassins, unsurpassed swordsmen, fertile in invention, and not without their own peculiar sense of humor. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.)

When, some months ago, we read the statement in some literary journal that Sir Gilbert Parker had decided not to write any more stories about Canadian subjects, we felt a sense of real disappointment, for none of his work in fiction has been superior to his earlier tales of this kind. Our pleasure, therefore, is all the greater in reading "Northern Lights." These stories are exceedingly dramatic, and each has a situation of real power. They record episodes of early days when the hunter and the Indian and the Hudson Bay Company's agents were the rough pioneers of civilization in British North America. Sir Gilbert manages, without violating probabilities or historic truth, to find a love interest and a way of introducing problems that appeal to women especially. A better or stronger volume of short stories has not been published for a long time. (Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.50.)

A contrast to Sir Gilbert Parker's "Northern Lights" is a new novel of Alaskan setting by Mr. Rex Beach. It is called "The Silver Horde," and is described by the publishers as "a dashing epic of love and victory." No one can deny that this story has rugged vigor or that it holds the reader's attention closely, but it lacks just what Sir Gilbert Parker has—that is, literary finish and a sympathetic touch. Leaving this aside, the book is a thrilling record of struggle against the elements and of struggle also against the duplicity of man in the newly opened country in Alaska. The plot turns about the establishment of salmon-canning factories in a district where the wealth to be obtained easily through the marvelous incoming of the fish has led an unscrupulous man to establish a monopoly and to fight newcomers by every means, fair or foul. (Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.50.)

All students of American literature are familiar with the name and the work of George Ticknor; but he died in 1871; there is a new generation, and Mr. Ticknor's reputation was always with the few rather than with the many. He was a Bostonian of the Brahmin caste, an aristocrat in taste and sympathy, a lover of dignity, high breeding, and an ordered society; a student and critic by temperament and habit, out of sympathy with the great altruistic movements which so deeply stirred Boston; a man of cool blood, temperate mind; fastidious, somewhat narrow, cultivated, and honorable. He will be remembered as one of the earliest American students who went to Germany for advanced education. Mr. Greenslet, in his introduction to the new edition of Ticknor's "Life, Letters, and Journals," credits him with being the originator of the University idea in American higher education. He was the founder of the Boston Public Library; and he was the author of a "History of Spanish Literature," a pioneer work, somewhat heavy in style, but singularly well balanced, and as yet not superseded. What Charles Eliot Norton was in a later generation, George Ticknor was in an earlier period, although Ticknor lacked the graceful touch, the exquisite urbanity and humor, which invested Norton's personality with such charm. Ticknor had a very wide acquaintance with men and women here and abroad. He was welcome in what are called the "most exclusive circles" in Europe; because, whatever else he was or was not, he was always a gentleman. His "Life, Letters, and Journals," published more than thirty years ago, has passed through twelve editions, and has now been reissued in two substantial and attractive volumes. They belong on the shelf beside Crabbe Robinson's "Diary." They are also important to all students of American political and literary history. (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $5.)

It is stated in St. Petersburg that Count Witte, who was Minister of Finance during the Russo-Japanese War, and Prime Minister at the beginning of the Russian revolution, is now spending two months at Biarritz, where he is actively engaged in the preparation of his memoirs. He began work on them nearly two years ago, but was compelled by circumstances to defer completion of them. The St. Petersburg Reitch says that they will not cover the whole of Count Witte's public life, but will deal mainly

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with the latter part of it, when he held the portfolio of Prime Minister. Inasmuch, however, as this period was closely connected with the Japanese War, the Count will devote the first part of his work to the causes of the war and the war itself. It is understood that his narrative of events will differ very materially from the accounts given by other eminent persons who helped to make the history of the time, and that the difference will appear in the presentation as well as in the explanation of facts. Count Witte has already finished this first part of his work, and is now writing the history of the period that began with the promulgation of the Czar's "freedom manifesto." According to the Reitch, Count Witte "is not sparing in the use of bright colors," and in characterizing the principal actors in the drama of the revolution he "goes to the limit." "This, of course," the St. Petersburg journal says, "will give to his recollections exceptional interest." A comparison of Count Witte's memoirs with the already published memoirs of General Kuropatkin ought to throw a flood of light upon the late struggle in the Far East and its consequences. It is not often that the world gets two official histories of a great war, one written by a War Minister and Commander-in-Chief, and the other by a Minister of Finance and Premier.

A letter from Professor William James, of Harvard, accompanies "Both Sides of the Veil," in which he speaks of the author, Miss Anne M. Robbins, as "a companion of mine in psychical research," and of her book as "a genuine record of moral and religious experience." The author recorded many of the test sittings of the famous and as yet unexplained "medium," Mrs. Piper, test sittings which convinced Dr. Hodgson of the truth of spiritism and had a great effect on the beliefs of Professor James and other noted psychologists. Miss Robbins relates what she considers remarkable communications she has had through Mrs. Piper and others with friends in the spirit world. As usual, the messages strike the personally uninterested skeptic as vague and valueless. There is nothing in them that is half as intelligent or well expressed as the author's own "suggestive thoughts on the attainment of spirituality." (Sherman, French & Co., Boston. $1.25.)

"The Spell of Italy" exactly describes Mrs. Caroline A. Mason's book of that name. Italy evidently gave her pure delight, and she relates her experiences in a way that will add much to the pleasure of travelers in Italy especially—and also to those who, at home, desire to know Italy through good books. In narrative form, a record of the leisurely journey of a mother and daughter is kept, into which is introduced with easy art much valuable historical and artistic information. The book also is vitalized by the individuality of the author, who is not a passive receptacle of opinions or literary judgments, but holds her own convictions and estimates with the firmness possible to a real student. If, occasionally, the playful style threatens to pall upon the reader, it is instantly forgiven because of a flash of real humor or deeper wit, while the actual knowledge possessed by the author is always satisfactory. Midway in the narrative, like a jewel in appropriate setting, though as different as the gem is from the precious metal that holds it, we come to an extremely graceful story of an American student in Perugia, a lovely romance charmingly told. Ancient Italy in history and art, in song and legend; modern Italy represented by clever conversations with modern Italian friends; and reminiscences of the many literary folk who have lived in Italy, besides frequent asides of piquant comment, make up the varied material of the volume. (L. C. Page & Co., Boston. $2.50.)

"China" is the subject of a new book by the English artist Mr. Mortimer Menpes, in which, as in several other books of the same general type, the important thing is really the beautifully reproduced colored pictures by Mr. Menpes. These books are accordingly properly described as by Mr. Menpes, although the text is by another writer—in this case Sir Henry Arthur Blake. The colored full pages have quite the effect of water-colors, and are rich in tone and tint. There are also many crayon sketches of typical Chinese heads and of odd bits and characters. The text is reasonably picturesque in its description of Chinese life and customs. (The Macmillan Company. $1.50.)

Dr. James G. Mumford's "Surgical Memoirs" may not improperly be described as a biographical survey of surgery from the time of Hippocrates to the present day. It is, to be sure, a book of a most miscellaneous character, for, besides biographical studies, it includes essays on such varied themes as the treatment of aneurisms, the ethics of medicine, and the ideals which every trained nurse should keep in mind. But even in these detached and special papers there is a certain biographical and historical flavor, and the book, as a whole, provides, if a by no means comprehensive, at all events a sufficiently clear and interesting view of the development of surgery from its dim beginnings in antiquity to the giant strides of recent years. Dr. Mumford proves himself a sympathetic as well as a discerning critic of the achievements of the ancients, and of such pioneers of modern surgery as the Hunters, Albrecht von Haller, and Sir Astley Cooper; his pages are distinguished by a broad toleration, eminent fair-mindedness, and, when opportunity offers, a sturdy preachment of lofty professional standards; and he writes with a lucidity and ease and vigor of expression that should commend his work to a far wider circle of readers than the practitioners and students of medicine, who cannot fail to profit from it. (Moffat, Yard & Co., New York. $2.50, net.)

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PUBLIC OPINION

CHRISTIAN SCIENCE AND MESMERISM

In your issue of August 28 appeared an article by H. Addington Bruce entitled "The Origin and Evolution of Mental Healing," in which the writer expresses a conclusion that Christian Science has been evolved from magnetism or mesmerism. Possibly he may have adopted this conclusion from the mere fact that the discovery of Christian Science came after the discovery and practice of magnetism.

In any event, Mr. Bruce has not taken into consideration the point that Christian Science could never have been evolved from mesmerism, in which, as he declares, "the ills are suggested" out of a patient, for the reason that every form of magnetic treatment is dependent upon the human will, while Christian Science eschews the carnal mind. Magnetic healing places no reliance whatever upon the Divine mind, as does Christian Science, and, to use the words of one of the most prominent of modern advocates of so-called mental therapeutics, "it is not necessarily religious."

Christian Science might have been evolved in spite of any prior belief in the beneficent action of the carnal mind; that is, one might outgrow a dependence upon the human will and thus advance above and beyond it to the discovery of Christian Science. In such a case, however, it should not be said that Christian Science has been evolved from mesmerism, but rather that it has been discovered in spite of one's temporary belief in mesmerism.

The following documentary evidence will give our readers a definite understanding of the difference between Christian Science and the practice of Mr. Quimby, from whom it is erroneously alleged that Mrs. Eddy derived her ideas.

In a verified and corroborated affidavit dated January 22, 1907, Mrs. Jane T. Clarke, whose husband was a patient of Mr. P. P. Quimby in October, 1865, only a few months before Mr. Quimby died, in February, 1866, declares: "We found Mr. Quimby to be a genial, kind-hearted man. His wife was of the New England type, and their home comfortable." In describing his method of treatment, Mrs. Clarke says:

"He placed both of his hands in a basin of water, then the left hand upon the patient's stomach and the right hand upon the patient's head. He slightly manipulated both the stomach and the head. The immediate effect was as if a hot iron had been placed upon the patient, and the sensation seemed to come from Mr. Quimby's hands. I myself took two treatments from him for a long-standing complaint. The treatment was as above. Upon experiencing the hot sensation I asked him, 'How did you come by this power and what is it?' He answered definitely, 'I do not know how nor when, nor do I know what it is. I think it is probably electricity passing from me to the patient.' The treatment in Mr. Clarke's case was daily continued from thirty to sixty minutes, during which time Mr. Quimby would describe the patient's symptons more accurately than the patient himself could. After the treatment Mr. Quimby would go out to his barn or garden and work off the pain and disease from his own body, claiming that the treatment drew the disease from the patient to himself. . . . Mr. Quimby had been ill much of the time since his first treatment of Mr. Clarke, frequently rising from his bed to give my husband attention.

"He did not teach a system of healing disease nor did he advocate any system. He did not know wherein lay his power, but believed it to be due to electricity. He never described the nature, cause, etc., of disease, but did describe symptoms. He did not attempt to account for disease as mental. He recommended the use of drugs in my husband's case, at least, and had the services of a physician in his last illness. He never attributed his ability to heal to God. In fact, he never spoke of God and was not a religionist."

The following is quoted from an affidavit, dated February 23, 1907, by Mrs. Emma A. Thompson: "I became acquainted with Dr. Quimby for the first time in 1862. His treatment consisted in placing bands on his wrists, plunging his hands into cold water, manipulating the head, and making passes down the body. He asked me to concentrate my mind on him and to think of nothing and nobody but him. . . . As the relief came to me he suffered greatly himself, saying that he took on my pain. I learned afterwards that his pain was so intense that it became necessary for my father to assist him to bed, where he remained until he was called to treat me again for a recurrence of the pain. . . . He left instructions for me to think of him and drink water until relief came. There was nothing in Dr. Quimby's method of treating disease which bears any resemblance to Christian Science. He never spoke of God and never referred to any other power

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or person but himself. As far as I know, he had no manuscripts or books relating to his subject. He gave me nothing to read and no explanation of his power. I distinctly recall that before he left our home my father offered him a check for one thousand dollars if he would impart to him or any member of his family his method of treating disease. To this the Doctor replied, 'I cannot. I do not understand it myself.'"

There is only one other fact necessary to end this discussion forever: namely, there is nothing in Mrs. Eddy's teachings that is in any way akin to what Mr. Quimby believed and practiced. Furthermore, Mr. Quimby was a consistent man, and if he had believed in the allness of mind, as Mrs. Eddy teaches, he could not have had sufficient faith in magnetism to have practiced it. He would have practiced Christian Science instead.

The careful student of Mrs. Eddy's writings is aware that she discriminates sharply between the Mind "that was in Christ Jesus" and the carnal mind that is "enmity against God."

Christian Science is a repetition of the curative methods of Jesus Christ, who ascribed his healing powers to God. "The Son," he said, "can do nothing of himself, but what he seeth the Father do."

The Mind that is God is the only healer, according to Christian Science, and this Mind acts without caprice, and for good only. ALFRED FARLOW.

Committee on Publication,
First Church of Christ Scientist,
Boston, Massachusetts.

THEODORE PARKER In The Outlook, August 7, 1909, at the bottom of the second column, page 848, in a note, Mr. George W. Cooke is quoted by Dr. Abbott as saying, "It is probable Parker was not familiar with Comte's writings." Now, I happen to know that Parker had the Paris edition of Comte's works, for I borrowed them when he was living, and, what is more remarkable, I borrowed his copy of Hamilton's "Lectures on Quaternions," purchased by him soon after their publication in London—a book scarcely read by *professional mathematicians, then* or *now*—and Mr. Parker bought, as you justly say, books to read, not simply to look at. Thomas Sherwin, the distinguished Head Master of the High School of Boston for so many years, said that Theodore Parker was the only clergyman visiting his school who could intelligently examine, without a book, all his classes in mathematics, including trigonometry, mechanics, and astronomy. It seems to the writer that a complete idea of the intellectual stature of Parker cannot be had without taking into the account his great love for mathematics and his greater familiarity with its higher and more difficult forms of analysis. That might also throw some light on the severity of his logic, dealing with social, political, moral, or ethical questions; also of the terseness of his opinions of men and affairs. His biographers and others seem to think this of little importance compared with his great knowledge of languages and literature. But the language of mathematics is the only universal language, containing much eloquent prose, many beautiful minor poems, and at least two grand epics, the "Principia" and the "Mécanique Céleste;" so perhaps they are not far wrong in not magnifying Parker's great mathematical ability.

Canaan, New Hampshire. E. HUNT.

[This statement of Theodore Parker's mathematical scholarship is new and interesting. But Mr. Parker's interpretation of Comte's philosophy is not one which would be accepted as true by any of Comte's disciples.—L. A.]

PARKER'S VIEWS In the article about Theodore Parker in The Outlook of August 7 are two slight mistakes to which I venture to call your attention. Theodore Parker was not really ever "excluded from the Thursday Lectureship." That is one of the things which, like the burning of witches at Salem, might have happened and is believed by many persons to have happened, but never actually did happen. The other is the passage about James Martineau. There never was a more loyal Unitarian than Dr. Martineau. He never objected to the name. But he thought it unwise for *churches* to be *founded* on the basis of the Unitarian name. He thought it better for the members of a church to unite on a different basis, and that churches should be open to those who disagreed from each other as to theological questions. L. F. C.

Coolidge Point, Magnolia, Massachusetts.

[This letter comes from a correspondent who has special opportunities of knowledge on the subject; but I do not think that on either of the points to which she refers I was in error. Respecting the Thursday Lectureship, Theodore Parker himself wrote to the Rev. Chandler Robbins, February 28, 1845: "I understand that at the last meeting of the Association [Unitarian], the management of the 'great and Thursday Lecture' was transferred to the hands of the minister of the First Church, to whom it originally belonged. I do not know what was the design of this movement, but I know well what

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its effect will be, to exclude me from preaching that lecture. I find no fault with this, though I could wish, if that had been the design, that it had been effected in a manner not so circuitous: I like directness." He rightly interpreted the effect: he never again delivered the Thursday Lecture; and we do not think there is any room to doubt that the effect was designed. Mr. Martineau's objection to the use of the term Unitarian he expressed to me in the later years of his life in personal conversation. The statement of this fact does not, however, rest alone on my memory. That objection will be found expressed by him in both public address and private letters in his "Life and Letters;" see especially Vol. I, pp. 60 and 95. He did not believe in founding a church on any doctrinal basis, whether Trinitarian or Unitarian, Orthodox or Liberal. Nor was his objection only to the name. He also objected to what he thought was the tendency of Unitarianism to deny the Incarnation, and so lose the secret of the power of Christianity as a revelation of God. Two sentences from one of his letters must here suffice to illustrate his position: "Religion once drifting away from the Personality of God and resolved into Moral Idealism (and this is the growing tendency of our young men) loses all that is distinctive and melts into general culture. . . . We are falling, I fear, into far more serious errors than those which other churches still retain."—("Life and Letters," Vol. II, p. 32.)—L. A.]

SOCIAL WORKERS NEEDED

The Bureau of Associated Charities of Newark, New Jersey, is in need of an extra number of workers for the coming winter, and would like to offer to two young women or to one young man and one young woman the opportunity of taking systematic training in social work in return for volunteer service.

The immediate need is in the Friendly Visitor Conference, where special emphasis is laid upon constructive work. We feel that the experience gained here can be very valuable to one who is planning to enter the field of social labor. Former volunteers who have taken the training have been satisfied with the results of the course, and have easily obtained salaried positions when these have been sought.

It may be that The Outlook would reach just the persons who would be glad to take training under a Bureau which purposes to make its system thorough while keeping its aims vital, while they also help in a situation which calls urgently for more workers.

We shall be glad to explain our work to any who may wish even to consider coming to us, and will make an appointment by letter in response to any request.

(Miss) EMILY S. HAMBLEN,
Head Worker Friendly Visitor Conference.
Bureau of Associated Charities,
10-12 Academy Street, Newark, New Jersey.

A REASONABLE APPEAL

The Northfield Schools are in need of help. For the first time in several years the treasurers have reported a deficit on running expenses for the year ending July 31. This we must meet at once, and are therefore making an urgent appeal for funds. To meet our current expenses for this year and wipe out the arrearages of last season we need $100,000.

Northfield Seminary and Mount Hermon Boys' School were founded by Dwight L. Moody nearly a generation ago, and they are known as the Northfield Schools. They have an aggregate enrollment of over eight hundred students, from every section of the country. Originally established for poor but self-reliant young men and young women who are seeking the advantages of an education of which they have been deprived in early years, these schools have kept true to their original purpose, and are still keeping their charges at the nominal sum of $100 a year, which is one-half the actual cost for board and tuition.

While the increased cost of living yearly adds to the burden that must be made up by our friends, we do not feel that we can increase our student charges. Our experience has shown that to do so would be to close the door upon those in whose behalf the work was established. We must therefore urgently appeal to friends throughout the country for their help. May we seek the help of your readers? Contributions of any sum whatever will be most gratefully appreciated, and should be sent to the undersigned. W. R. MOODY.

[The Outlook is glad to bring this appeal to the attention of its readers. These schools, under the admirable direction of Mr. W. R. Moody, are doing a valuable, perhaps even a unique, work in education, and deserve public-spirited support.—THE EDITORS.]

THE PEOPLE OF INDIA

It is difficult to reach the point of view from which your correspondent Mr. Lewis finds the people of India unwilling to learn. To some observers it seems unexampled that men of affairs and young aspirants for office have mastered the English language and literature; while the National Congress and much of the Indian press might serve as

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models for their like in this country or in England in the use of our language, in style or dialectic.

As to primary education, Romesh Dutt ("India in the Victorian Age," page 203) says: "Most of the four million boys who attend schools in British India at the present day only receive an elementary education in reading, writing, and arithmetic, and this elementary education was not originated by British administration, but is indigenous in India. Sir Thomas Munro and Mountstuart Elphinstone reported, after inquiries made early in the nineteenth century, that elementary education had been much more diffused in India from time immemorial than it had been in Europe; and that Indian boys attending their indigenous schools showed great powers of mental calculation in simple arithmetic. The Bramans and the upper classes of India considered it a part of their religious duty to give some education to their children, and the classes engaged in trades and commerce trained their boys in letters and in accounts, to befit them for their hereditary duties. British administration has recognized, helped, and subsidized this ancient system of elementary education; but the help given is still inadequate."

Nor is it easy to see "base ingratitude" in the Indian people. The ancient Hindu measure of taxation was one-sixth of the gathered crop. The British found India in the most decadent period of its history, when oppressive invaders took half the crop, and the British adopted their rate of exaction, after first plundering their accumulated treasures. They exacted with regularity what formerly varied with the seasons, for they levied on an official estimate of the produce, and not on the actual return. Misery, famine, and plague undermined this system until the present rate tends to approach one-half the estimated net crop, but may reach sixty per cent or more, for the amount is not defined by law, but largely depends on the assessor, and there is no appeal to the courts. This is the system which we are told leaves the *rayat* the lightest-taxed peasant in the civilized world; yet he is "basely ungrateful," although enjoying an annual income which some think may reach $10, though others say it is only $5.

Another "blessing" is railways. It comes disguised in questionable shape. Who that takes his information from the official fount would guess that India guaranteed five per per cent on the shares? that these shares were based on twice the cost, and that when this arrangement gave a market at one hundred and twenty-five per cent, India bought them in at that figure, having already paid forty million pounds sterling for deficits guaranteed?

Six or seven times more has been spent for this particular "blessing" than for irrigation. Each recurring famine commission has advised the contrary policy, but in vain, for this "blessing" conspicuously enriched the giver. Its system of finance entitles it to rank with the rankest exploits of *haute finance* of our own decadent period of finance, for which few of us show true gratitude. CHARLES R. SOUTTER.

Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

THE HOME OF THE ALCOTTS

On the afternoon of August 6 I made my first pilgrimage to the "Orchard House," Concord, home of the Alcotts from 1858 to 1878. There it was that Louisa May Alcott wrote the first part of "Little Women." Although the day was hot, I met within the hour, going and coming, at least twenty-five other pilgrims to the same shrine.

Such being the continuous interest in the house, great was my amazement to find the sign "For Sale" displayed, and an air of decay and abandonment evident. Can the Little Women of America afford to let this house crumble and fall, till the place that knew it shall know it no more? It is not too late, now, to restore it. The low, wide rooms are charming, and must ever seem pervaded by the gracious spiritual presence of those who consecrated its walls. The woods at the side, and stretching far back, are ideally beautiful, and in my mind's eye I could see, in place of impending ruin, a *home* once more, breathing peace and rest to weary wielders of the pen!

Is there not among all the fair and fortunate sisters of our land one whose means are ample enough and whose heart is inspired enough to buy this property and convert it into a home for struggling and temporarily indisposed authoresses? Think of what Louisa Alcott *was*, of all she did for her family, as well as of what she wrote to bless the world! It was her *life* she gave so freely and so fully; surely there will be some one who will be glad to give her money!

This is only a hint as to the uses to which such a house might be put. Another would be to suggest to the children, of whatever age, who still love "Little Women" to contribute each ten cents. With the thousands of dimes that should come like a torrent the house could be bought, restored, and kept open to visitors, whose admission fees would defray expenses. STELLA M. LIVSEY.

Providence, Rhode Island.

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Other people put the savings of years into a home and then rely on their *luck* to avoid the thousand and one chances of fire. Do you?

Still other people invest their entire assets in a store or a factory, and then wholly or in part insure themselves, thinking that they can carry the risk as well as the insurance company. Do you?

The average man has most of his property in one place. To carry his own insurance is to depend upon chance, *i. e.:* to gamble, with ruin as the penalty for losing. The business of the insurance company is founded on the law of averages. It can be safely conducted, but only when its stability is based on the experience of tens of thousands of risks widely distributed over a continental area.

The Hartford Fire Insurance Company offers unsurpassed indemnity. Its business is distributed among more than ten thousand cities, towns and villages throughout the United States and Canada. During 99 years it has paid every just claim — more than $125,000,000 in all. Its policies are safeguarded by ample resources and an honorable record.

Capital, ...	$2,000,000
Reserve for all Liabilities,	13,171,224
Surplus for Policyholders,	7,061,592
Total Assets of . . .	$20,232,816

The "Hartford" insures all classes of property. It also serves property owners by telling them how to guard against the dangers of fire. It has published a book on the subject, with separate chapters for householders, merchants, and manufacturers, that will be sent free to those who apply for it.

Insure in the "Hartford"

To secure a "Hartford" Policy of the book referred to above, apply to

Hartford Fire Insurance Company

HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT

Agents Everywhere

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Why Irrigation Bonds Are So Popular

The most popular bonds that we handle now are Irrigation Bonds. They have displaced, with a large share of our customers, Municipal, Corporation and Public Utility bonds which pay a lower rate.

When rightly conducted, Irrigation projects now involve no uncertainty. The Government itself is spending tens of millions of dollars in reclaiming this arid land.

The demand for irrigated land exceeds the supply, because of its enormous fertility. And because an unfailing water supply, under constant control, insures one against crop failures.

The most productive and costly farm lands in America are now in the irrigated sections.

Carefully Guarded

The projects which we finance are carefully guarded. Our own engineers and attorneys pass on every feature. An officer of our Company, residing in the West, keeps constantly in touch with every project until the whole work is completed.

We have our pick of these projects, because we are known as the leading dealers in Irrigation bonds. The projects we finance are always well located.

In the past 15 years we have sold 71 separate issues of Reclamation bonds—Drainage and Irrigation—without a dollar of loss to any investor.

The Security

Irrigation bonds are secured by farm liens, given by individual owners in payment for water rights.

These liens are conservative—more so than the usual farm mortgage. They are often for less than one-fourth the land's value.

The first crop from the land is frequently sufficient to pay the whole lien—often by several times over.

In addition, the bonds are secured by a first mortgage on all the property which the Irrigation Company owns—the property which the proceeds of the bonds help to build.

Some of these bonds are municipal obligations, issued, like School bonds, by organized districts. Such bonds are tax liens on all the real property in the district.

Some of these bonds are issued subject to the provisions of the Federal law known as the "Carey Act."

The security in all our projects is ideal and ample. It is hard to conceive of anything better.

Six Per Cent

Irrigation bonds pay six per cent interest—a higher rate than can now be obtained on any large class of bonds based on equal security.

The reason is this: Irrigation projects are profitable. There are few undertakings where such amounts of money can be used to equal advantage.

The demand for irrigated land is now overwhelming. And there is great demand for money that will help to supply it. So the bonds pay this liberal rate.

$100—$500—$1,000

Irrigation bonds are issued in series, usually payable all the way from two to twelve years. One may make long-time or short-time investments. Every bond paid off increases the security back of the rest.

They are issued in denominations of $100, $500 and $1,000, so they appeal to both small investors and large.

Ask For Our Book

We have written a book on Irrigation bonds which every investor, small and large, should read. It is based on our intimate knowledge of the facts, gained by 15 years of experience.

Please send this coupon today for it. It will enable you to judge if Irrigation bonds form the sort of investment you seek. (4)

Trowbridge & Niver Co.

(Established 1893)

Municipal and Corporation Bonds

First National Bank Bldg. CHICAGO | First National Bank Bldg. SAN FRANCISCO | 50 Congress St. BOSTON

Gentlemen:—Please send me your new Bond Book, "The World's Greatest Industry."

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Town _____

State _____ 483

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FRIENDSHIP FAVORS

Friendship Calendar
A Thought for Every Day
1910
For 'tis the bliss of friendship's holy state
To mix their minds and to communicate;
Though bodies cannot, souls can penetrate.
Dryden-Alexandrine

ALL GOOD CHEER That a Gift Can Carry is in the FRIENDSHIP CALENDAR

A little pleasantry for each day of 1910. The most unique, artistic, effective arrangement of its kind. In several handsome editions containing a page for each day of 1910. You can fill the 365 calendar leaves yourself or get other friends of the friend you intend to present it to, to contribute anything personal; quotations or original selections, clippings of all sorts, messages, sentiments of courage, inspirations or fun; kodaks, sketches in water-color or pencil, prints, etc. Think of the beauty of such an expression of friendship to say nothing of the pleasure that it will afford the recipient.

Blue and Gold Edition—Shown here, design in 3 colors, silk hanger, 365 artistically dated leaves, with gilt fasteners. Size 9¼ x 7⅛. Price, in box, postpaid, $1.00.

Florentine Edition—Renaissance design, with mosaic coloring of the period and appropriate Della Robbia lettering, calendar pad as above. Size 10 x 7⅛. Price, in box, postpaid, $2.00.

A new Calendar and great value for the price asked.

Flemish Edition—Arts and Crafts, fumed oak back, panel for photograph or postcard, title hand painted in two colors, calendar pad as above. Size 11⅜ x 9¼. Price, in box, postpaid, $3 50

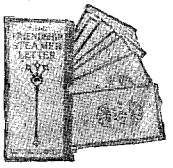
De Luxe Edition—Red or Blue padded Morocco back, easel support to stand on desk or dresser, hand stamped in gold, leaves dated in two colors, with gold plated fasteners. Size 9¼ x 7⅞. Boxed price, postpaid, $5.00.

Start to-day—by writing to us for the edition you prefer, or by asking for it at any good Stationery or Book store.

NINETY-NINE THOUGHTS

are the best collection of friendship sentiments ever brought together. To help in getting up calendar or may be used for gift purposes singly or as a collection. Selected with rare discrimination and printed tastefully on best paper 3⅜ x 3½, suitable for mounting, placing on desk, etc. In decorated box, postpaid, 50 cents.

FRIENDSHIP STEAMER LETTERS



offer a novel means of giving or getting more pleasure from your Ocean trip. Ten elegantly printed sheets, one for each day of the voyage, you and mutual friends of the one sailing may fill these with some little pleasantries of the day—so the recipient can break a seal each day while aboard ship—through this scheme though far away you have the close personal expression of those dear to you.

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¶ We shall be pleased to make suggestions and will send circular 37 Y descriptive of bond issues yielding as liberal an income as can be safely obtained.

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Municipal Bonds
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to net from 4.15% to 4.75%

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to net from 4.50% to 6%

We are prepared at all times to submit offerings of selected securities for investment.

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